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ABSTRACT

Ten papers focus on aspects of special education in Britain, Canada and Sweden. "The Meaning of Handicap" by J. Bicknell presents a dynamic view of handicaps and discusses the effects of others' reactions to the disabled child. M. Cooley ("A Study of Parental Response to Pre-School Provision for Handicapped Children") reviews a survey that documented widespread use of existing services. Establishment of a college course for 16 year old educationally subnormal school leavers is discussed in "A College Certificate Course for Less Able Students" by R. Case. H. Brayton discusses a similar approach in "An Assessment and Work Preparation Course for Less Able Students." E. Cronk ("Leisure and Recreation Training for the Handicapped: An Assessment of A Canadian Programme") describes a course designed to give disabled persons increased independence in leisure time decisions. H. Huddart presents "An Analysis of Vocational Education for the Handicapped in Sweden." A program designed to help the transition from school to work is described by M. Thomas in "Changing Pattern of Provision for the SSNM Leaver in the Portsmouth Area." Findings of a study conducted on the curriculum needs of slow learners are reported by B. Hancock. R. Wood ("A New Concept in Boarding Provision for the Maladjusted Pupil") describes a residential program for disturbed children. In a final paper, H. Hayhoe asserts that the inclusion of requirements for integration in the 1976 Education Bill may actually be determined for mentally handicapped people. (CL)

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WESSEX STUDIES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

1981

Editor:

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LIST OF CONTENTS

TITLE	Pages
THE MEANING OF HANDICAP .. .. By Joan Bicknell	1- 16
A STUDY OF PARENTAL RESPONSE TO PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN .. .. By Mary Cooley	17- 30
A COLLEGE CERTIFICATE COURSE FOR LESS ABLE STUDENTS .. By Robert Case	31- 44
AN ASSESSMENT AND WORK PREPARATION COURSE FOR LESS ABLE STUDENTS .. .. By Howard Brayton	45- 62
LEISURE AND RECREATION TRAINING FOR THE HANDICAPPED: AN ASSESSMENT OF A CANADIAN PROGRAMME .. .. .. By Elaine Cronk	63- 74
AN ANALYSIS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED IN SWEDEN .. .. By Harold Huddart	75-100
CHANGING PATTERN OF PROVISION FOR THE ESN LEAVER IN THE PORTSMOUTH AREA .. .. By Mike Thomas	101-112
REVIEW OF THE SCHOOLS COUNCIL REPORT 'CURRICULAR NEEDS OF SLOW LEARNERS' .. .. By Bob Hancock	113-120
A NEW CONCEPT IN BOARDING PROVISION FOR THE MALADJUSTED PUPIL .. .. By Ronny Wood	121-134
SECTION 10(76) AND ALL THAT.... .. .. By Helen Hayhoe	135-152

THE MEANING OF HANDICAP

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Wessex Studies in Special Education, 1981, Vol. 1, pp. 1-16

An organic view of handicap

When we hear a group of professionals talking between themselves about their handicapped patients or pupils, we are likely to hear such comments as "he has almost no vision in his right eye" or "he has a 10 decibel hearing loss" or "there are no movements in her legs at all and I don't think she has any sensation either". We, who work with handicapped people tend to think far too often of handicap as something organic, measurable, perhaps unchangeable but at least clearly definable to the observer. We may think in structural terms and much recent research has improved the precision by which we may reliably measure handicaps of various kinds. This is important and will help us in early diagnosis and in evaluation programmes when we assess the results of intervention with a group of children or adults who have measured handicaps.

I believe that handicaps are not simply structural and easily measured. A handicapped child is affected by his handicap, by what this means to him, by the ways in which he is made aware that he is different and these are balanced by the internal resources he has for coping. In this paper I want to develop this theme and also point out that none of us are free from handicap. We all have deficits and many so called handicapped people have skills that are far superior to our own.

Are we any different?

Unfortunately, thinking only in objective terms and concentrating on precise measurement of handicap encourages us to feel that there is a difference between those who are handicapped and those who are not, the classic "we" and "they" situation. Yet one moment's thought makes us realise that this is not the true picture. All human beings are on one spectrum of the human condition. All of us have skills and all have deficits. Some deficits matter a lot and others not so much. Some skills seem almost innate or learnt while we were young and other skills only come later in life after a lot of hard work and practice. It matters if we have never learnt to walk without falling, but it does not matter if we fail to play hockey or football with sufficient

skill to represent our school or college. It would be devastating if we were not able to hear spoken conversation and yet there are many who do not have the more refined auditory skills to recognise musical intonation. So, within the total spectrum of the skilful human being we have smaller spectra of various skills ranging from the basic which we must all acquire if possible, to the sophisticated, which only a few ever acquire.

So let us dispose of the idea that there is a difference between the handicapped and the non handicapped. Each human being is a mixture of essential basic and non essential sophisticated skills and a mixture of deficits that matter and deficits which we can accept. I can recall meeting (so called) handicapped people, who are more skilled than I am in certain areas. People who operate pens and paint brushes with their mouths or their toes, producing pictures of rare beauty or the instinctive sense of rhythm of some mentally handicapped children. At a deeper level I have met others who shame me with their capacity to come to terms with failure and with rejection, their ability to love, when they have not been loved themselves, to share when they have so little, to shun self pity and to enjoy today for what it holds rather than to worry about tomorrow. I have met others whose personalities have caused endless difficulty with contrived dependency, self centredness and chronic irritability spoiling relationships with others and bringing loneliness as an additional burden.

I believe that it is important to look carefully at ourselves when working with the handicapped. What are our own deficits and skills? Do we know about them and are they known to others? Have we allowed our own handicaps to hamper the development of our personalities, our caring skills and our relationships?

A dynamic view of handicap

The meaning of the term "handicap" is both organic and dynamic, an ever changing meaning according to the child's age, his situation, his peer group and the expectations of those around him. To give an example, the deaf child with deaf parents is hardly handicapped in the family group, provided that non verbal communication is taught to

him early and continued to a sophisticated level. However, when that deaf child meets those in the hearing world, he is seriously disadvantaged. The obese child in an obese family where intake of calories is high for everyone, is probably not seriously handicapped in that setting, where sporting activities are not valued and a high calorie intake is not a cause of family disharmony. The fat child in an athletic family, however, is at great disadvantage in terms of family pastimes, family values and achievements. The child's wish to continue a high calorie intake, unless she is persuaded to slim, will also be a source of family argument.

Insight and age-related awareness

Let us look more closely at what it means to be handicapped. To be aware that one has a handicap or deficit is related firstly to age. The tiny child is unaware that he is different from anyone else. Congenital hemiplegic children initially draw figures of men with unequal arms and unequal legs. As they grow older they realise that not everyone is hemiplegic and then draw the more normal human figures realising at the same time their own abnormality. The very intelligent and perceptive child with a physical handicap, may realise from an early age that he is different and he may not have the psychological stamina to deal with this painful awareness without a great deal of help.

The developmental age in a mentally handicapped person has the same important role in the level of insight that is achieved. I can think of instances where severely mentally handicapped people in long stay hospitals have watched a television programme concerning some mental handicap problem similar to their own. Comments like "they are handicapped, not like us" are often made by these people who seem to be unaware of their similarity with the televised group. However, there are now many experiments where mentally handicapped adults are living with people of normal intelligence and are being made aware of skills they do not have and yet within that loving and challenging environment they develop their limited potential to the full.

Failure to achieve self imposed standards

Some people acquire their handicap after early childhood because of an illness or an accident, and their internal awareness of what it means to be handicapped is seen in the reflection of their earlier life. Often the early non handicapped life is idealised and the comparison is a permanent source of distress. I knew a lad who suffered severe brain damage following a head injury, leaving him intellectually damaged and with only one useful limb. As he sat in his wheelchair he reflected repeatedly on his past swimming achievements, which in reality were not great but to him had become the outstanding event of his non handicapped life. His aim was to learn to swim again. This proved impossible and he became depressed about his own inadequacies. We attempted to channel this desire to achieve away from swimming and to something more appropriate to his present life, but sadly he died before we were able to help him. This failure to achieve inner goals set by the handicapped person is one cause of depression and we can do a great deal to divert those goals to something more realistic, remembering that many activities are now successfully adapted for those with handicaps, in particular in the field of sport.

How does society react?

An awareness of what it means to be handicapped is also related to the levels of expectation imposed upon the child or adult both in the home and outside. In this respect small impediments may be far more handicapping than larger ones. The child with a small hearing loss may be diagnosed much later than a child with a profound hearing loss and the former child may be misunderstood, punished, restricted, and misdiagnosed for several years before the truth dawns. The levels of expectation at home, among his playmates and at the nursery school may be far too high for that mildly deaf child, and so when his handicap is noticed he may have developed a sense of failure avoided by the severely deaf child who was diagnosed earlier and placed in an environment where levels of expectation were appropriate to his handicap. Many children with handicaps have obvious physical abnormalities which make an early diagnosis possible and which are also noticeable to the

passer-by. Sometimes this abnormality triggers a positive response from society and helps in the integration of that child rather than his segregation. Mother takes her Down's Syndrome child into the supermarket and she may be embarrassed by the time she comes to the checkout by the numbers of people who have stopped to speak to her and enquire after the progress of the child, some will hand the child sweets or even money. By contrast, the mother with an autistic child, characteristically attractive in appearance, takes him into a shop where he has a tantrum and throws himself to the ground screaming. Onlookers are critical, "what a badly behaved child" they say and mother is humiliated by his behaviour. Society has not yet understood that despite an absence of physical abnormality the autistic child is in many ways far more handicapped than the child with Down's Syndrome.

However, a grossly abnormal appearance may bring a negative response and affect the child's reaction to his own handicap because his appearance has affected the reactions of others to him. Children born with chronic and severe eczema may be unattrative both to the onlookers and to the caretakers. I can remember one little girl whose skin was thickened over the whole of her body, and was constantly scratched, bleeding and infected. Her head hair was scant and her face shrivelled. She was known by her family as "the monkey". She kept the family awake at night by the scratching of her skin and her distress. She grew up not only handicapped by her eczema but deeply aware of the repeated personal rejections that she had suffered, and this became an acute crisis in adolescence. Children with Apert's Syndrome have severe facial deformity and are most unattractive to look at. I know of two such children who, having been rejected by their parents at birth, have grown up in a children's home, and while staff have done as well as they could, both of these children show personalities damaged by the early rejection.

Insight related to family environment

Families may react in different ways regarding the development of internal awareness of handicap in their child. Many parents feel they do their child lasting good by delaying his own awareness of his

deficits and they keep the child in the family group or with a peer group with similar handicaps. Other families plunge their young handicapped child into groups of normal children, ready and willing to deal with the questions that will come concerning his inabilities, by comparison with the others. This internal awareness of handicap can be delayed or reduced when children go to highly specialised schools, in particular if they are boarding. A spina bifida child who meets only children with the same handicap for the entire school term and lives in a building superbly adapted for his every need, will not develop an internal awareness of his own difficulties until he has left school when he may suffer a crashing blow to his self confidence as he finds that not every public building is fitted with ramps and toilets for the disabled. A dull child in a dull family where all the siblings go to special schools, will not be aware of his dullness until perhaps he competes for a job in open employment. Such a child is going to come to terms with his own deficits late in adolescence when help in doing so is possibly not available. We must also ask ourselves the question "how does the handicapped person fit in with the family's main interests?" Is it important in this family to be musical, athletic or bright? If the family has a tradition of certain interests and skills, the handicapped person may impede the development of those interests and may become a source of resentment and frustration which can cause a breakdown in family relationships.

Insight and age related needs

To continue our quest for an understanding of the whole meaning of handicap we must search for critical periods when the handicap has its greatest detrimental effect. If we can spot these critical periods we will then know when we must intervene at maximum intensity. We know that the child who has a severe hearing loss must have intensive help in the pre school period if he is going to be able to benefit from the special education provided when he is of school age. Likewise we know that children with subtle learning difficulties must have help in their early school years if behaviour problems and an unwillingness to work are to be avoided later on. A child with a facial disfigurement such as a birth mark or naevus may not be bothered by this in early

childhood but in adolescence such a birth mark can become the unwarranted focus of crises with boyfriends, girlfriends, relationships with adults and difficulties in the employment market. For the mentally handicapped person there are several well known crisis periods. The behaviour of the mentally handicapped person can become acutely disturbed when a younger sibling overtakes the developmental level of the handicapped child. Coping with an unfulfilled sexual drive is a crisis point for mentally handicapped adolescents made worse by marriage of their brothers and sisters and sometimes accentuated when nephews and nieces are born. If parents continue to be the caretakers for that handicapped person, then the major crisis of all occurs when they can no longer cope in the caring role and hand this over to someone else, perhaps in a long stay residential unit. We can summarise, therefore, by saying that handicaps assume varying levels of importance according to the stage of the child or adult development and his age related needs.

Once we have identified the presence of a handicap we should ask ourselves:

What does it mean?

To this person?
To have this handicap?
At this time in his life?
In this environment?
With this family?
In this peer group?

Reaction to the knowledge of handicap

The child's handicap is the sum of the objective analysis of that handicap made in whatever measurements are appropriate and the child's own reaction to his handicap as far as he has been made aware of it through the development of his insight, the external pressures upon him, his environment and his age related needs. Many handicapped children, I believe, cannot cope with this awareness without help. This help may come from parents, teachers, friends and rarely from a psychiatrist. One reaction of the child is to become depressed and

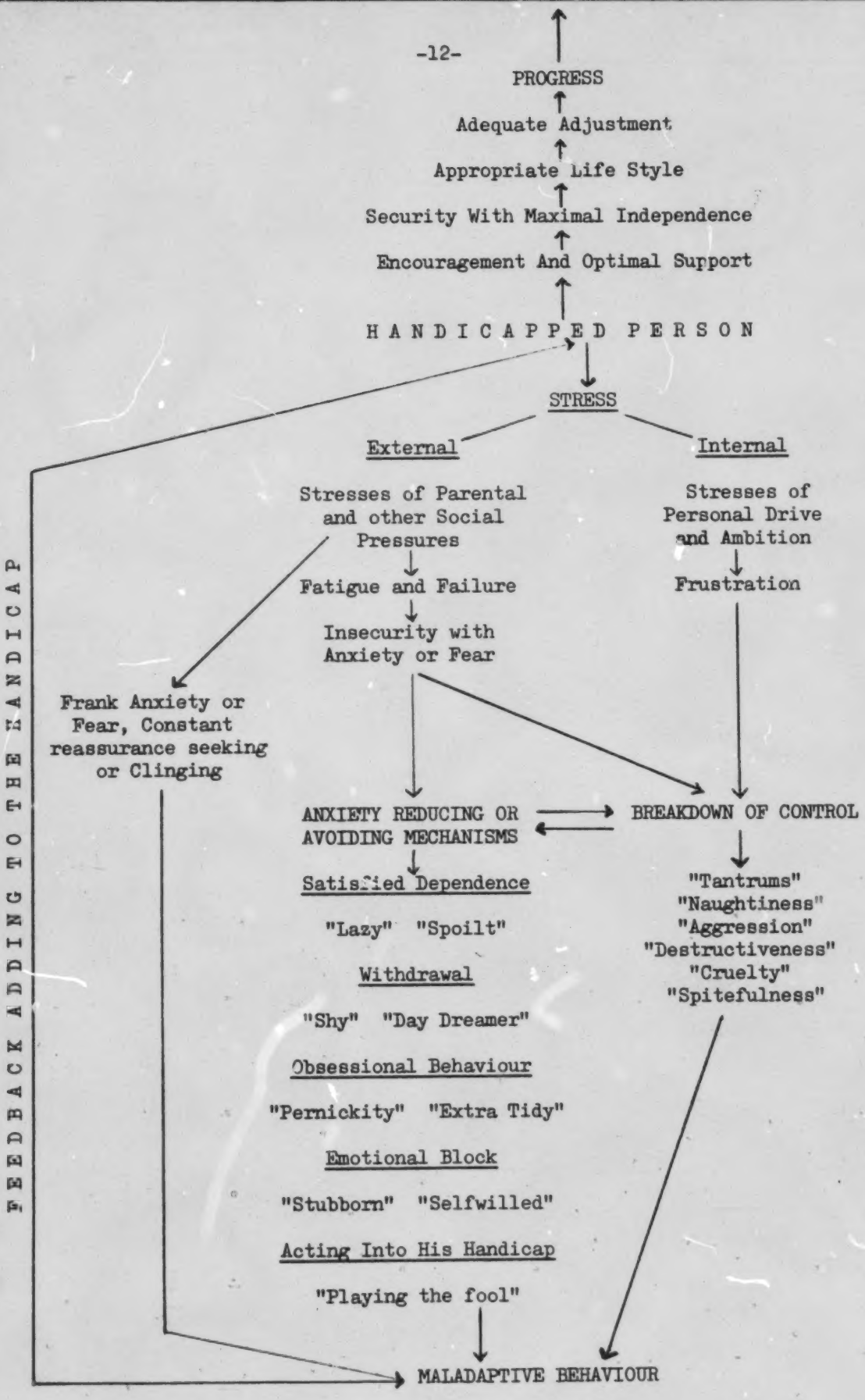
angry that he is different. Other children develop a chronic anxiety. They cling to those who care for them and become dependent upon their help. They regress to a lower level of functioning and fail to make the expected development in their daily living skills, "I cannot do it" becomes "I will not do it", and this draws forth the label of "stubborn" or "lazy". The anxious child may order his world so that he can cope and makes sure that the unexpected never happens; he is then labelled as "obsessional". Finally, his ultimate retreat is into himself and then he is called "withdrawn". Once within himself he can indulge in fantasy which at times takes the place of reality. When fantasy is uppermost he is master of his fate. Unfortunately, no learning takes place in this fantasy world and he becomes labelled as "schizoid" or even "psychotic".

Other children react to a painful internal awareness of difference by a breakdown of their inner controls. They have tantrums, develop aggressive behaviour to themselves or to others and become destructive of property. This destructive behaviour is often directed towards their own prized possessions or to the thing they cannot achieve themselves, the model they did not make, the older sibling's homework book or father's prized flower-bed. Other children indulge relentlessly in attention seeking behaviour, never able to satisfy themselves with the love and attention they have already. Unfortunately, attention seeking behaviour, if extreme, results in antipathy in the caretakers who then reject the child for his ceaseless efforts to gain their attention.

Some children use their handicap to manipulate tricky family situations to their own advantage. They may take on to themselves inappropriate "power" in the family, perhaps playing off one parent against another by, for example, the incitement of pity because they have adopted the "sick role". Unfortunately, many handicapped children have little opportunity to develop their caring capacity for others and the qualities of sympathy and empathy remain underdeveloped. It can be easy to slip from that situation into one of chronic self centredness. These children must be challenged and given opportunities to care for others. Several such children have

come to a riding centre for the handicapped that I know well; through developing their riding skills and by providing the opportunity to care for the pony before thinking of themselves they have been taken from this self centredness through to the stage where they can think of others, learning to share and to lose and above all to put the pony before themselves in an environment that is charged with happiness, excitement and achievement.

The behaviour of the child as a response to his handicap, be it maladaptive as I have outlined above or adaptive and positive, is an index of the appropriateness of the environment that we are providing for that child. We can use the improvement in his behaviour as an index of success in our education and management. The continuation of such disturbed behaviour should be seen as a signal that additional help or a different environment is required.


PROGRESS
Adequate Adjustment
Appropriate Life Style
Security With Maximal Independence
Encouragement And Optimal Support
HANDICAPPED PERSON
STRESS
External
Internal
Stresses of Parental and other Social Pressures
Stresses of Personal Drive and Ambition
Fatigue and Failure
Frustration
Insecurity with Anxiety or Fear
Frank Anxiety or Fear, Constant reassurance seeking or Clinging
ANXIETY REDUCING OR AVOIDING MECHANISMS
BREAKDOWN OF CONTROL
Satisfied Dependence
"Lazy" "Spoilt"
Withdrawal
"Shy" "Day Dreamer"
Obsessional Behaviour
"Pernickity" "Extra Tidy"
Emotional Block
"Stubborn" "Selfwilled"
Acting Into His Handicap
"Playing the fool"
"Tantrums"
"Naughtiness"
"Aggression"
"Destructiveness"
"Cruelty"
"Spitefulness"
MALADAPTIVE BEHAVIOUR
FEEDBACK ADDING TO THE HANDICAP

Parental reactions to a handicapped child

The grief and mourning for the perfect child, long awaited but who fails to arrive when a handicapped child is born has been well recognised by many writers and vivid descriptions by parents substantiate the importance and universality of this reaction. When handicap is diagnosed during childhood, in particular after an illness or accident, the same grief response occurs in the parents who mourn that perfect child they no longer have. This grief must be worked through before the parents can come to accept the handicapped child with affection and realism, and failure to work through this grief results in guilt feelings, parental unhappiness, over protection, lack of discipline, perhaps feelings of rejection, with even a morbid desire for the death of the child or possibly also a denial of the reality of the handicap. Parents often have little opportunity to develop a good relationship with their child. They are frequently deprived of the meaning of their child's handicap even in the broadest terms. They may not have the basic information of the services available, and where to turn when in need of help. The way in which they were given the news of the child's handicap may not have been sufficiently sensitive and adapted to their needs at that time. Many handicapped children suffer additional and repeated physical illnesses which require, for example, admission to hospital and so the mourning reaction of the parents for the perfect child who never arrived may be compounded by separation experiences preventing bonding between the mother and her handicapped child.

One of the major problems for the parents is that they must make day to day decisions on the management of their handicapped child that are based not on previous experience nor on information to be found in books. One of the continuing uncertainties is how to handle day to day problems of discipline, problems thought too trivial to bring to the attention of teacher, doctor or school nurse. The child needs to conform to daily routine, but how much allowance should be made for his handicap? As a result the child may be indulged and discipline may become inconsistent.

Many parents feel ambivalent about their handicapped child. This is a painful mixture of anger and rejection of the unlovely and imperfect, bound up with the natural biological instinct to care for one's own offspring however dependent. Ambivalence of this sort is uncomfortable to live with and leads to difficulties in making decisions over such matters as boarding school and residential care. The child may be over protected, never exposed to risks, challenges, excitement or choice making. He may never experience what it is to be hungry, thirsty, tired, cold or soaked by rain. He may not be expected to grow up and take responsibility and he becomes used to instant gratification of his every wish. Inconsistency of handling may be evident between the parents, one who is over protecting and the other wishing to be realistic and help the handicapped child to greater independence. This among many other reasons can lead to marital disharmony and it is not surprising that there is a high incidence of marital breakdown where there is a handicapped child. Sometimes the handicapped child is the pawn, unhappily, in the marital disharmony "game", at other times he becomes the scapegoat for the family troubles and takes this unhappy load on to himself with perhaps no possibility of help by sharing it. It is only when the load is recognised for what it is and is shared using family therapy techniques, that the child is freed from his burden.

Conclusion

You may feel that this is a gloomy article full of predictions of what can go wrong when a child has a handicap. However, it is only by the early recognition of these reactions of the child, his family and perhaps his caretakers as well that we can intervene in a sensitive manner and help everyone to a more positive reaction to the knowledge of handicap. This type of sensitive intervention is at the heart of special education and also at the centre of the health and social services developing now for handicapped children and adults.

I believe that if we can intervene early and if a whole variety of appropriate services are available then the presence of handicap within a family, whatever that means initially to the child and his parents, can have an enriching effect for everyone. The whole family

can become more cohesive and purposeful, the child himself can come to terms with his handicap, developing his personality, having respect for himself as an individual, full of skills and self dignity.

A STUDY OF PARENTAL RESPONSE TO PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

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Wessex Studies in Special Education, 1981, Vol. 1, pp. 17-30

> "The form and extent of parents' need for support will depend on a multiplicity of different factors, including the nature and degree of their child's disability or disorder, his age, the family circumstances and, not least, the parents' own resources and independence. The support, however, and wherever given, must be seen as taking place within a partnership between parents and the members of the different services."
>
> Warnock Report (1978) p.161

Tizard (1964) reporting on a survey undertaken in London, commented that one group of families which were "not getting much help" or "which appeared to be particularly hard done by" were pre-school "defectives" and their families. This comment is consistent with the findings of other researchers in the same decade. Not only were the opportunities for nursery education very limited, as is still the case, but the role of parents in the education of their very young handicapped children, and their needs in relation to this role, were recognised by relatively few people.

During the past ten years the importance of the earliest years in the development of handicapped children, the situation of families which include one or more of these children, and the attempt to meet their needs and those of their parents, have become steadily more apparent. Both interest and concern were apparent in a number of research projects which were published almost simultaneously, and in which the significant role which their families play in the lives of handicapped children was recognised; also the extent to which provision was meeting the needs of these families was examined. Investigations by Younghusband et al (1970), Rutter et al (1970), Hewett (1970), McMichael (1971) and Carr (1975) all produced evidence of the very limited provision for pre-school children, while the Plowden (1967), Court (1976) and Warnock (1978) Reports recommended the expansion of nursery provision.

During the past ten years various projects in this field have been established and reported both in America and Great Britain. Of particular interest and relevance are those of Montenegro (1977),

de Lorenzo (1977), Gray (1977), Baker (1977), Bristol (1977) and Heifetz - all reported in Mittler P. (1977) and all American in origin, while in Great Britain, Kushlick (1977), Cunningham and Jeffree (1971), Bevington et al (1978) and Clarke and Sandow (1978) amongst others have investigated various different types of pre-school provision for handicapped children and their families.

In Winchester, the development of the Medecroft Opportunity Centre provided the writer with the stimulus and opportunity to investigate the response of a group of parents to various services which had been established to meet some of their needs in relation to their young children, many of them handicapped in some way. The investigation was undertaken to try to study:

(a) the extent of the parents' use of the provision offered;

(b) some of the apparent reasons for their response to these services;

and to outline suggestions for the future developments at the centre.

The Medecroft Opportunity Centre has been developed from the foundations laid by the self-help mothers' group which first met in 1968. The parents themselves organised this group, a playgroup for the children, and support from various professionals. Eventually, in 1976, a purpose-built centre was opened on the campus of King Alfred's College, which provided the site, as a result of collaboration between the Education, Social Services and Health Departments of Hampshire County Council, the Lions Club of Winchester, the Winchester Society for Mentally Handicapped Children, and the Winchester Opportunity Group itself. The services offered at the centre include a children's group, a mother's group, a toy library, assessment and treatment by specialists and some home visiting.

The data for the study were obtained by means of a questionnaire, although the limitations of this research method were appreciated. The practical reasons for this decision included the benefits that information could be obtained simultaneously, and therefore that changing circumstances would not introduce additional variables; anonymity would encourage frankness in the responses by parents; and

that respondents would have time for reflection before answering questions, though it was acknowledged that this might affect their responses. Thus the findings are presented, tentatively, and in the knowledge that the information obtained might provide indications but not necessarily evidence of universal applicability.

The information which was obtained in the course of this enquiry showed that all but one of the existing services were being used by a significant proportion of the parents whose children attended the Medecroft Opportunity Centre. In addition, the investigation indicated certain aspects of these services which merit further consideration.

Mothers' Group

The present organisation of the mothers' group meetings while being helpful to many parents, is less than satisfactory in the opinion of others. It may be that some improvement could be effected by means of the procedures advocated by Wonnacott (1978), Occleston and Friend (1978) and Bristol (1977) in which a leader is appointed with reference to the particular skills and responsibilities involved in such a role.

Some possible activities of the mothers' group are not at present being developed, such as the visiting of prospective new members, the regular involvement of past members, and the care of toddlers during meetings. One of the explanations for these omissions could be that the function of the group has changed fundamentally in the transition from self-help to authority-based provision and the members have not yet identified their new role. As Poulton and James (1975) have pointed out:

> "The hope for the future exists in the potential of families to respond to the invitation of professional helpers and in combining their talents to rejuvenate their own world."

Children's Group

In relation to the children's group, the need was expressed by several parents for their children to attend the centre more often. A pattern of more frequent and regular attendance would facilitate the assessment and intervention procedures and improve the possibility of involving mothers in activities with their children. A more flexible arrangement would be helpful to some mothers, who might wish to bring their children to the centre more frequently at some times than others, in response to home and family commitments which vary in different circumstances. An arrangement of this kind can be made in a few cases at any one time, but it could pose considerable organisational problems if it were a facility available to all parents at all times.

Toy Library

The toy library, a community-sponsored service, appeared to be well co-ordinated with other aspects of provision, and to be fulfilling a useful function. The Warnock Report (1978) suggested that toy libraries could be organised by the education services, and be available on a wider basis. This suggestion raises the question of the desirability of transferring control from voluntary to statutory bodies with the resultant implications.

Specialists (Doctors, Therapists)

Parents' responses indicated fundamentally positive reactions to the services provided by specialists at the centre. A few reservations by individuals indicated that, as might be expected, interpersonal relationships between some parents and professionals are not always effective, for a variety of reasons, this is an aspect of offering support which deserves careful attention.

Home Visiting

Home visiting is the service which has been least developed; a relatively small percentage of parents has been involved. Few parents appeared to want a regular and specific service of this kind although there was apparently more interest in domiciliary visits of a more

general and less structured nature. It was clear that some mothers would welcome visits other than those which fulfil an educational purpose, but that others have reservations about this aspect of provision. Because there are so many doubts about the acceptability of home-visiting, it would be useful to investigate its potential, not only in terms of promoting children's development but also in contributing to parental morale and independence. It would appear to be an appropriate component of a comprehensive and flexible group of services, if certain conditions are met.

It has not been possible to investigate all the implications of the present organisation on the integration of handicapped children and their parents with the rest of the community. The centre has an important function in this respect and all the collective activities which take place are potentially influential. It is clear, from comments in the questionnaires, that more could be done in the mothers' group, particularly, to effect this integration.

The survey of different projects in the field of provision for pre-school handicapped children and their families has provided information concerning a variety of approaches, some of which have not been included in the range of services which exist at the Winchester centre. There are also some aspects of provision to which relatively little attention has been given hitherto, namely, the role of fathers and the needs of siblings.

Because many of the facilities offered to parents are available simultaneously with the presence of handicapped children in the centre, mothers are far more likely to be able to attend than are fathers. Therefore, in discussion "parent" has been, almost always synonomous with "mother". Occasional evening social events are arranged and some fathers attend these, but careful arrangements often have to be made by parents so that both of them can be out of the home during the evening. Experience of many parents' associations indicates that fathers find satisfaction in contributing practically in terms of skills, either practical or academic, and that activities of these kinds result in their closer personal involvement in the organisation which they are helping. Although most mothers are naturally more closely and

continuously concerned with the upbringing of children than are fathers, it is clearly important that both parents are fully involved in the development of integrated family units. Because the needs of fathers in this context are different, in some respects, from those of mothers, it would be helpful to investigate ways in which fathers might be encouraged to become more closely involved in activities at the centre.

The presence of a handicapped child in a family inevitably affects the experience of every member of that family to a greater or lesser extent. In some cases siblings must maintain a considerable degree of tolerance towards the handicapped child, and provide practical help of various kinds. If the centre is intended to provide services for families, it would be relevant to examine the needs of siblings and ways of attempting to meet those needs.

Any consideration of services to handicapped children and their parents must take into account the need to develop the independence of families and their ability to adapt to the various circumstances which affect their lives. In order to achieve this it is important that parents' self confidence is increased, not diminished. The availability of services, therefore, needs to be established in such a way that individual patterns of need can be met. The fact that services exist and are available does not ensure that parents will recognise the potential benefit to be derived from them. Thus, the importance of information, advice and counselling is apparent in ensuring that parents are made aware of the nature of those services which are likely to be supportive to them.

A distinction between information- and advice- giving, and counselling is made advisedly. Information-giving is interpreted as referring to the communication of facts; these facts may be concerned with various forms of provision, financial grants, equipment, or with the nature and implications of handicaps. Advice-giving is interpreted as referring to the transmission of suggestions concerning the way in which individuals may behave in given circumstances. Counselling is interpreted as the process of helping an individual to understand himself and adjust to the circumstances of his life. It is concerned

with the emotional balance, social competence and psychological growth of human beings. The emotional stress connected with the presence of handicap in a family is well documented, as is recognition of the effect it may have on individuals' abilities to make decisions and act on them effectively. This aspect of provision is one which has not yet been fully explored at the centre. The extent to which counselling skills are required by all those people who provide services for handicapped families is open to debate. Because of the complex nature of interactions and responsibilities between individuals it is questionable whether the presence of one person in each centre who possesses counselling skills would be sufficient, but it would appear that if the co-ordinator of provision and at least one other worker were trained in counselling procedures, this would be helpful.

This study has been concerned, primarily, with establishing the extent to which services are used, and appear to meet a range of needs. There are three aspects of provision which are not directly related to the establishment of suitable services, but which fundamentally affect availability and effectiveness; namely, organisation, communication and interpersonal relationships.

The content of this paper will have demonstrated the complexity of organisation on which such a centre is based. Clearly, the quality of leadership is crucial in determining the degree to which available resources can be harnessed to promote maximum benefit for the community.

Comments have been made in various different contexts concerning the importance of effective communication. It is apparent that the existence of support and services, information, advice, and counselling is relatively useless unless understanding is established between parents and those who are responsible for administering provision of all kinds. Establishing and maintaining communication is, therefore, a significant factor in providing help for those in need.

Inevitably, recognition of the importance of considering individual needs when planning provision for handicapped children and their families has resulted in a concentration on phenomenological factors. The contribution which social psychology can make to the effective implementation of provision deserves careful consideration. The work

of social psychologists has been influential in focusing attention on the importance of creating positive working relationships between individuals. This is, principally, the responsibility of the person offering provision. The creation of a harmonious relationship enhances the possibility of positive co-operation. Argyle (1967) has asserted that:

> "Many everyday encounters are unpleasant, embarrassing or fruitless, because of inept social behaviour ... many of these difficulties and frustrations could be eliminated by a wider understanding, and better training in the skills of social interaction."

The existence and availability of provision is of prime importance, but unless the three aspects of delivery of services, discussed briefly above, are of high quality, the effectiveness of provision is likely to be impaired. This study of provision is, therefore, incomplete, since it is concerned simply with an examination of the range of services offered by the centre; parents' responses to services are likely to be affected by the quality as well as by the nature of provision.

The findings obtained in the course of this investigation indicated some modifications of the provision which appear to merit consideration. This study was designed to investigate parental responses, but various factors, in addition to those which pertain to the needs of parents, must be taken into account when planning provision. These factors include the extent to which the various patterns of provision appear to influence the children's development, and also the cost-effectiveness of these different patterns. The recommendations which follow are presented in this context:

(1) A reduction in the size of the catchment area of the centre which would provide benefits for those who would be eligible to attend. Support for parents and stimulation for children could be increased as a result of more frequent attendance. There could be greater continuity of experience for the children and more opportunities for mothers to attend the centre in connection with their own activities and those proposed for their children.

(2) The development of individual programmes for each child, involving the parents in precision teaching techniques, which are carried out at home with support from the staff of the centre.

(3) The release of each teacher from duties in the centre for a part of each week in order to undertake home visits to those parents of children in their group who would welcome such visits.

(4) The development of counselling skills should be an integral part of training for all professional workers in such centres.

(5) Leadership of the mothers' group should be undertaken by a person who has received some training in social interaction and group dynamics; preferably the parent of a handicapped child or a social worker.

(6) Parents of older handicapped children should be invited to form links with parents of children who attend the centre, undertake home visits if these are welcome, and provide friendly support.

(7) Periodical multi-disciplinary conferences should be established in order to share knowledge and expertise, disseminate information, and facilitate communication and co-operation between members of the disciplines involved.

(8) Resource centres, offering a base for a range of services and providing a focus for workers in the relevant disciplines should be provided in other areas. The possibility of adapting existing school buildings, at present unused, might be considered.

Since the completion of the study some of the recommendations have been implemented. The circumstances are changing, constantly, and attempts continue to be made to meet the changing needs.

There is no doubt that the centre, and others which are similar in many respects, is found to be very supportive to the families who use its services. It is suggested that provision of this kind, co-ordinating the work of professionals, volunteer helpers and parents, using simple accommodation such as empty classrooms, could make a significant contribution to the quality of life of many more families than are benefitting at present, with a minimum financial investment.

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A COLLEGE CERTIFICATE COURSE FOR LESS ABLE STUDENTS

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This article describes the establishment of a course for sixteen year old ESN school leavers at Price's College, a sixth form college in southern Hampshire. It is, therefore, a study of a major innovation within a traditionally academic institution. Particular emphasis is placed on the problems encountered in setting up the course in the hope that this may help others contemplating establishing comparable courses in similar establishments. The nature of the course itself is outlined briefly but is not given prominence since information of this kind is already available from a number of sources (e.g. Dixon and Hutchinson, 1979).

The use of models of innovation has been the subject of much discussion in the past twenty years. Whatever the appropriateness of various models the use of one, even if self-designed, is important as it sets out a clear programme with specific objectives. The model used in this instance was a modification of that devised by Feyereisen, K., Fiorno, A.J. and Nowak, A.T. (1970). The model identifies the following procedural steps:

(a) identification of the problem;

(b) diagnosis of the problem;

(c) search for alternative solutions;

(d) selection of the best solution;

(e) ratification of that solution by the organization;

(f) authorization of the solution;

(g) adoption of the solution on a trial basis;

(h) direction and guidance of staff;

(i) evaluation of the effectiveness of the solution;

(j) modification of the solution in the light of (i) (this is a feedback loop in systems terms).

The identification of the problem in this area came from the local specialist careers adviser and the head of the local ESNM secondary school. Both felt that there was inadequate educational

provision for their leavers, and they approached the senior staff of the local colleges. The most enthusiastic response came from the principal and deputy principal in the sixth form college. This raises an important issue. It is almost essential to have a committed member of staff at a very senior level in the institution where the course is to be run. Only at this level can the necessary resources be mobilised and the political decisions made. If the individual concerned is also a skilled diplomat many of the obstacles which need to be overcome will be less daunting. However, the task of implementation is too great for one person at that level and thus it was that the author was deputed to investigate the problem in detail and carry out a feasibility study.

The second step was to diagnose the nature of the problem. Two issues were apparent here. Firstly, what were the claims of this group to further education and secondly, what were the needs of the students concerned. The claims of the group may be reiterated here. Firstly, the special schools frequently have shorter hours than comprehensives, often for transport reasons. Consequently by the age of sixteen this group will have accumulated a considerable deficit of formal educational input. Secondly, since ROSLA in 1972, ESN students have lost the extra year of compulsory schooling. Thirdly, and partly by definition, many of this group are late maturers, who often make rapid advances in learning capacity at around 16, just when they are expected to leave school. Fourthly, there is the problem of physical separation from the normal school population. This lack of integration leaves many unprepared for the abrupt re-entry into the general community at a time acknowledged to be the most stressful in many people's lives. Finally, as the economic situation deteriorates job opportunities for this group decline, squeezed by recession and the increasing skill levels required for jobs. Not only does a further period of education offer the chance of acquiring some greater degree of skill, it also offers a positive alternative to the alienation and vandalism that may result from prolonged unemployment.

Given the compelling arguments for further education provision for the sixteen year olds, the question arises as to what are their

exact needs. Briefly put, their needs can be stated as follows:

(a) to be able to secure a suitable job;

(b) to be able to acquire the practical and social skills required to retain that job;

(c) to be prepared for the exigencies of independent, and perhaps later, family life; and

(d) to find suitable ways of employing leisure time in an age of increasing leisure and probable unemployment.

These needs are very broad and can be broken down into more specific needs. Thus the need to secure a suitable job involves:

(i) the need to be aware of one's abilities and limitations;

(ii) the need to acquire relevant job information;

(iii) the need to be able to apply for jobs; and

(iv) the need to conduct oneself appropriately in interview.

The other needs can be similarly broken down. It was the identification of those needs that formed the basis of the formulation of aims and objectives discussed later.

Having diagnosed the problem the next stage of the model was to search for alternative solutions. This necessitated an investigation to determine which institution in the area could make provision for these students. It is accepted that in any one area a variety of types of provision should be available as suggested in the Warnock Report. The main issue here was whether this type of pre-vocational course should be established in the local technical or the local sixth form college.

The traditional model for this type of course has been developed in technical colleges and it is clear that this has found favour with DES and the Warnock Committee. This follows the

pioneering work of such colleges as North Notts College of Further Education. The model for that particular college can be seen in an article by Hutchinson in Dixon and Hutchinson (op.cit.).

Without discussing the obvious disadvantages of an extra year in the special school or wishing to diminish the fine work of many FE colleges, several points may be made in favour of sixth form colleges.

Firstly, all Hampshire sixth form colleges have an expressed open access policy and have gradually widened their intake, so that the new course at Price's was a logical extension of a comprehensive policy at sixteen plus. Secondly, the colleges relate their provision to the needs and demands of students rather than to those of employers. The flexibility of the timetable in a comprehensive college offers a unique opportunity, at least in the long term, to tailor a course to the particular needs of the individual. Thirdly, the college had a core of staff who were enthusiastic and dedicated to undertake the considerable task of preparing for and teaching such a group of students. Fourthly, with its wide ability range and sophisticated pastoral care system, Price's was in a good position to monitor the transition of these students back into, if not the general community, at least mainstream education whilst providing a support system that would guide them through this difficult period.

Clearly, within this area, Price's was the best of the alternatives at the time. This raised the interrelated problem of exactly what sort of course should be established. A number of possible forms were investigated. The chosen solution was one that combined maximum flexibility with a coherent course structure. The two primary aims, derived from the needs identified earlier, were:

(1) to prepare the student for the world of work so that he may confidently obtain and retain suitable employment; and

(2) to prepare the student for the exigencies of adult life so that he may live as an independent member of society.

These lead, in turn, to some more specific secondary aims:

(a) to increase self-awareness in the student so that he can see his abilities, aptitudes and limitations in relation to work, personal relationships (especially within the family) and independent living;

(b) to develop in the student the communication and numeracy skills necessary for work and independent living;

(c) to develop in the student the social skills necessary for work and in society;

(d) to enable the student to master the practical skills necessary for successful independent living;

(e) to develop in the student the awareness of his rights and responsibilities in society; and

(f) to make the student aware of the recreational opportunities open to him so that he is able, if he so wishes, to exploit them in his leisure time.

The achievement of these aims is undertaken in a timetable organised into five main modules. These modules have been given appealing names and a colour coding so that they can be easily identified by students. "Earning a Living" is concerned with the world of work and includes work experience placements. "Setting up Home" is concerned with finding accommodation, furnishing and maintaining it. "Living with Others" looks at personal relationships, social institutions and current affairs. "Going Places" is a mobility module covering all kinds of personal and public transport including vehicle maintenance. Finally, "Living with Leisure" covers the concept of leisure time and examines the type of activities that can fill an increase in that time. Basic skills are covered throughout these modules but there are additional specific periods devoted to numeracy and literacy which are often run on a one-to-one basis. Students can also combine elements of the course with CSE courses and time in the college study workshops in Maths and English. All students participate in the college general studies programme

choosing two sessions per week from a large range of options including many physical activities.

A variety of teaching techniques are employed but of particular note are those linked to resource based learning. A room was specially designed with this in mind. The advantages of resource based learning in meeting these students' needs are:

(a) the student has to learn to "access" information sources, as he will have to when he leaves college;

(b) it releases the teacher to give individual attention to students and to build up all important personal relationships;

(c) it encourages students to learn for themselves instead of being teacher dependent - this should result in better transfer of skills from classroom to the outside world; and

(d) it emphasises how to "find out" and solve problems rather than acquire rapidly redundant knowledge.

A great deal of emphasis is also placed on practical work, for example, in the engineering workshops and home economics department. As will be obvious a number of staff are involved in teaching the course, a point to which we return later.

This then was the solution selected for trial. The next stage in the process of implementation was to gain ratification from the organization. In this instance the organization operated at two levels - the local education authority represented by the local office and the college itself. In approaching the local authority four requirements need to be fulfilled. Firstly, the right person must be approached. Secondly, considerable diplomatic skill is required. Thirdly, a thoroughly researched and practical proposal must be presented. Fourthly, there must be consent from the college itself. Of the first and second little need be said here. The third point can be discussed. Clearly the proposal must identify the need, cite comparable examples, detail the nature of the course, outline how it might be implemented and monitored and finally, state how much it is likely to cost. Much help can be

gained by visiting colleges already running courses, talking to the staff of special schools, careers officers, employers and psychologists. It is obviously important to talk to the youngsters themselves and in this case the author was released for two periods a week to teach in the local special school to build up a relationship with the students before they moved to the college. Time was also provided by the authority for most of the visits to colleges and other schools. Of particular help in the preparation of this course was the Centre for Educational Disadvantage in Manchester, where details of many similar courses are held. Help was also forthcoming from the local university and college of higher education (Southampton and King Alfred's College respectively).

The fourth requirement was, of course, the consent of the college. This is potentially one of the most difficult tasks in the whole innovation programme. A number of problems may arise here. Staff may feel that their academic status is threatened and they may equate backwardness with hooliganism. They may regard the college as too large already. Further there will be the inevitable personality clashes between progressive and conservative elements. A full awareness of the problems - particularly that people's perceptions and attitudes are as important as the issues themselves - is a prerequisite of successful innovation. While it is best to talk to staff individually, there may come a time, which may be deliberately precipitated by opponents of the scheme, when a corporate decision has to be made. Such a time came in this project and an extraordinary staff meeting lasting half a day was called. Apart from thorough consultation beforehand the key to overcoming obstacles of this kind is the character and quality of preparation. Four main speakers were involved in this afternoon - the deputy principal who had taken up the idea and whose academic credentials were greatly respected; one of the tutors from King Alfred's College to lend external academic legitimacy; the deputy head of a residential special school and the head of the local ESNM school whose idea it had originally been. All were impressive but it

was the passionate appeal from the local head that won the day. A staff meeting may or may not make the final decision but if there is majority feeling against, further work might prove impossible or at least unwise if the students are not to be ostracised when they arrive.

From ratification should come authorization to implement the project on a trial basis. If this trial is to be successful, direction of staff is vitally important.

Some colleges will prefer to recruit a member of staff to set up the course, after the early stages of the model are complete. However, even if he has experience in the field or in a special school he will be at a disadvantage in not having been involved in the project from the outset. Further he will have no knowledge of the workings of the college itself, in particular the personalities involved. Also, if he is to be the main tutor (i.e. teaching on the course for more than seventy-five per cent of his time) he runs the risk of becoming isolated within the staffroom and the students are deprived of the contact with mainstream teachers that all other students have. This is not to deny the arguments in favour of a specialist, it is merely to point out the alternatives and indicate that the alternatives do work. Thus the decision was made to make an internal appointment of course director (the author) with head of department status; this gave representation at the influential head of department meetings where college policy was discussed. A further decision was that the course would be taught by a number of college tutors who also taught at other levels within the college.

These staff were all volunteers, some with relevant experience, some without. Adequate preparation for them was vital. A two day in-service course was mounted well before the course commenced at which a number of experts spoke. These included the specialist careers officer, the county advisers for special education and educational technology, students from a similar college and a number of staff from the special schools. Additionally a decision was made to mount the City and Guilds 731 course "Teaching the Handicapped in Further Education" at Prices. King Alfred's College, Winchester was persuaded to provide the course tutors. Three members of staff now have this qualification. The author has the additional background derived from The Open University

course "The Handicapped Person in the Community" undertaken before the college certificate course began. In addition to this formal direction, the staff of the local special schools have always provided help and advice as required.

The penultimate stage in this model of innovation is evaluation and this is a continuing process. Monitoring has been carried out systematically in a number of ways:

(a) regular staff meetings built into the college timetable - these have not only reviewed the course but also the students' performances: a sophisticated evaluation form covering a number of qualities relating to employment potential and social development is used as the basis for discussion and from discussion arise modifications of objectives for particular individuals;

(b) the City and Guilds course provided a base for a critique of the course; this gave important external perspectives not only from the course tutors but also from visiting speakers such as educational psychologists, social workers and county advisers; and

(c) an in-service review day at the end of the first year, at which all college staff involved in the course and a number of external experts joined a forum to discuss four main areas - problems relating to employment, the curriculum and teaching methods, pastoral care and liaison with outside agencies.

The review of the first year did reveal a number of important criticisms. Foremost amongst these was the original concept of a one day a week work experience programme. The lack of continuity this produced caused a number of problems that led to its replacement by a three week block in both the first and second terms. Other important problems related to over-expectation by parents and students, perhaps understandable when Prices had been a grammar school only six years earlier. Letters of acceptance now make clear that the course does not lead to formal qualifications although an internally validated certificate of course completion is issued.

Problems also arose in the pastoral care area. Some of the students were very demanding, and extensive counselling with them and their parents was necessary. There is now more contact with parents than was originally envisaged. Finally, there were some difficulties in the area of liaison especially with the contributory comprehensives (who did not understand the true nature of the course at first), the psychological service and the health authorities. Most of these have now been ironed out - liaison with agencies such as these and the careers service, employers and educational administrators have been vital to the success of the course.

It should be clear from the foregoing paragraph that the final stage of the model, modification, has been undertaken. In the second year the number of students has almost doubled and the timetable is now even more flexible and responsive to their needs, as diagnosed on entry to the college. Future improvements are also anticipated. The fact that the course has been reasonably successful is due to the contribution of a large number of people. However, it is to be hoped that this paper demonstrates the importance of a well defined model of innovation. It is also hoped that this account of how one particular course was introduced will be an inspiration to those still frustrated by inadequate provision in their own area.

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AN ASSESSMENT AND WORK PREPARATION COURSE FOR LESS ABLE STUDENTS

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Wessex Studies in Special Education, 1981, Vol. 1, pp. 45-62

"We recognise that relatively few young people with disabilities or significant difficulties have achieved by the age of sixteen either their full educational potential or an adequate degree of maturity to make a smooth transition to adult life."

(Department of Education and Science, 1978)

Introduction

In the summer of 1974 a new area careers officer was appointed to Chippenham. One of his principal concerns was the overall provision existing for the handicapped school-leaver. He was keen that local colleges should be asked for their support in establishing as soon as possible special facilities for this particular group, initially on the basis of a pilot scheme. A proposal was submitted to County Hall in May 1975.

As the local college felt unable to help at the time, Trowbridge Technical College was approached and a pilot scheme was set up which commenced on 27th October 1975. The education of the students was organised by a teacher with many years experience as a deputy head of a school for maladjusted and ESNM senior pupils. The administration of the course was the responsibility of the college student counsellor. At a later stage a technical studies lecturer was made responsible for craft work and industrial liaison.

The pilot scheme started with eleven students - the majority of whom were ESNM but some had additional handicaps, epilepsy, partial sight and maladjustment. During the first few months several students left to take up employment or were found unsuitable, whilst several others joined the scheme. By the end of March 1976 there were fourteen students, eleven of whom transferred to the first full-time course which started the following year.

There were inevitably problems of accommodation and resources but with the approval of the local authority, Her Majesty's Inspectorate, governors and the Academic Board of the College, the decision was taken to start the full-time course in September 1976.

In April 1976, six months before the course's scheduled start, I was appointed to organise the Assessment and Work Preparation Course for Handicapped School-leavers. I came from a comprehensive school where I had been responsible for setting up and running a special education unit.

The course: an outline

The idea that handicapped students should be offered further education combined with an assessment of their suitability for training and employment is not a novel one. However the sudden and rapid growth of sporadic provision is new. Though many colleges of further education have helped handicapped students incidentally, it is only recently that courses specifically designed for them have assumed prominence. Trowbridge College is one of those which has made pioneering efforts in this field.

1. Policy

For many young people the transition from school to work is difficult. It is particularly true of the handicapped student who has come to rely upon the support of the special school or unit. Often the very time that support is most needed it is withdrawn. The Assessment and Work Preparation Course is designed, through a programme of assessment and education in its broadest sense, to help handicapped school-leavers whom we feel will be suitable for open employment. Because of the wide range of students' physical and mental handicaps and their differing personalities the course is geared to the needs of the individual. These needs fall into three broad areas: (a) the need to build up self confidence and healthy social attitudes; (b) the need to raise educational standards within individual capabilities; and (c) the need to discover attitudes, aptitudes, attainments and aspirations relevant to the work situation.

2. Selection

Since all students will have been known to the careers service for some time the majority of our referrals will come via careers officers. Other referrals might come via the school psychological service or schools or parents. However all these referrals are passed on to the careers service before being placed on our list for initial assessment.

3. Assessment

An Assessment Day is held in June each year when the prospective students attend College. Whilst at College they are given psychological, educational and dexterity tests and at the same time they are assessed socially through observation and interview. Reports are also obtained from the students' school and social workers, where relevant.

The assessment panel which is made up of representatives of the College, the careers service, community health and the school psychological service meets later when each student is discussed. Some students are recommended to other College courses: some are found unsuitable, for a variety of reasons.

4. Course size

As one student leaves the course another joins, maintaining numbers between thirty-two and forty. The course is organised in four equal parallel groups, (see Table 1). The maximum length of the course is two years although many move into open employment during their second year.

Students on this course are regarded as having individual needs rather than fitting neatly into a category of handicap. However it might be worth noting that among the first forty students to enter the course there were:

TABLE 1 COURSE TIME-TABLE

ASSESSMENT AND WORK PREPARATION COURSE 1980-1981

				GARDENING	
MON	1	BRICKWORK	SOC. SK.	DRAMA	EDN
	2	EDN	CAREERS	EDN	EDN
	3	SOC. SK.	BRICKWORK	W. SHOP PRACTICE	
	4	CAREERS	EDN	EDN	EDN
TU	1	W. SHOP PRACTICE		EDN	SPORT
	2	LIB. ST.	EDN	CRAFT	CRAFT
ES	3	DECORATING	CARE	EDN	SPORT
	4	EDN	DECORATING	CARE	SPORT
WED	1	DECORATING	EDN	EDN	LIB. ST.
	2	EDN	DECORATING	W. SHOP PRACTICE	
	3	CRAFT	CRAFT	HAIRDRESSING	LIB. ST.
	4	HOME MANAGEMENT		CAREERS	LIB. ST.
THU	1	SWIMMING	CARE	CRAFT	CRAFT
	2		DRAMA	CARE	EDN
	3		CAREERS	TYPING	EDN
R	4	W. SHOP PRACTICE		EDN	TYPING
FRI	1	TYPING	ELECTRIC	EDN	HOMEMAN
	2	ELECTRIC	TYPING	SOC. SK.	HOMEMAN
	3	FABRICATION		HOMEMAN	EDN
	4	CRAFT	CRAFT	HOMEMAN	SOC. SK.

32 ESNM
10 Maladjusted
5 Physically handicapped
3 Partially sighted
3 Speech defective
2 Profoundly deaf
2 Epileptic
2 Partially hearing
1 Delicate

(Several students had more than one handicap)

5. Accommodation

Until recently the main base for the course was a double mobile located centrally on the College campus. This comprised a lecture room for Essential Skills (ie, literacy, numeracy, careers advice and liberal studies) and a workshop for design/craft and workshop practice. At the time of writing (September 1980) we have just moved into a purpose-built suite of rooms in a new three-floor teaching block, (see Appendix). Sited on the ground floor between the students' common room and the first aid/nurse's room, we have two general purpose lecture rooms, an office, a lobby/tutorial area and a workshop with all modern facilities. Such was the vision of those in authority who identified the needs of this group of students and made provision for them a high priority.

It is worth noting that from the outset of our discussions the intention was clear that our students should be right at the centre of college life. It is significant therefore that the rooms used by the course are adjacent to the students' common room. The other important point to note is that for those who might need medical help at some time or are chair-bound, the rooms are sited next to the nurse's room, the first aid room and the lift.

Each of the classrooms has a row of four learning carrells with individual lights and electric sockets. These are primarily used for English as much of this particular course is based on a taped scheme. Great emphasis is placed on visual learning through the use of film and television. Each room therefore has black-out curtaining and television points. The lobby which is used as a library area and for

private study also houses the clocking-on machine. Every student is required to clock-on each afternoon.

In the craft room we decided to dispense with the usual work benches and installed Black and Decker 'Work Mates'. To avoid trailing electric wires to power tools moveable sockets have been used. Students are able to use the lathe, band saw, pillar drills and electric planer. There are three strategically placed 'knock out' buttons to switch off all power in the room in an emergency. Power is only available to authorised staff who have a key to the control panel.

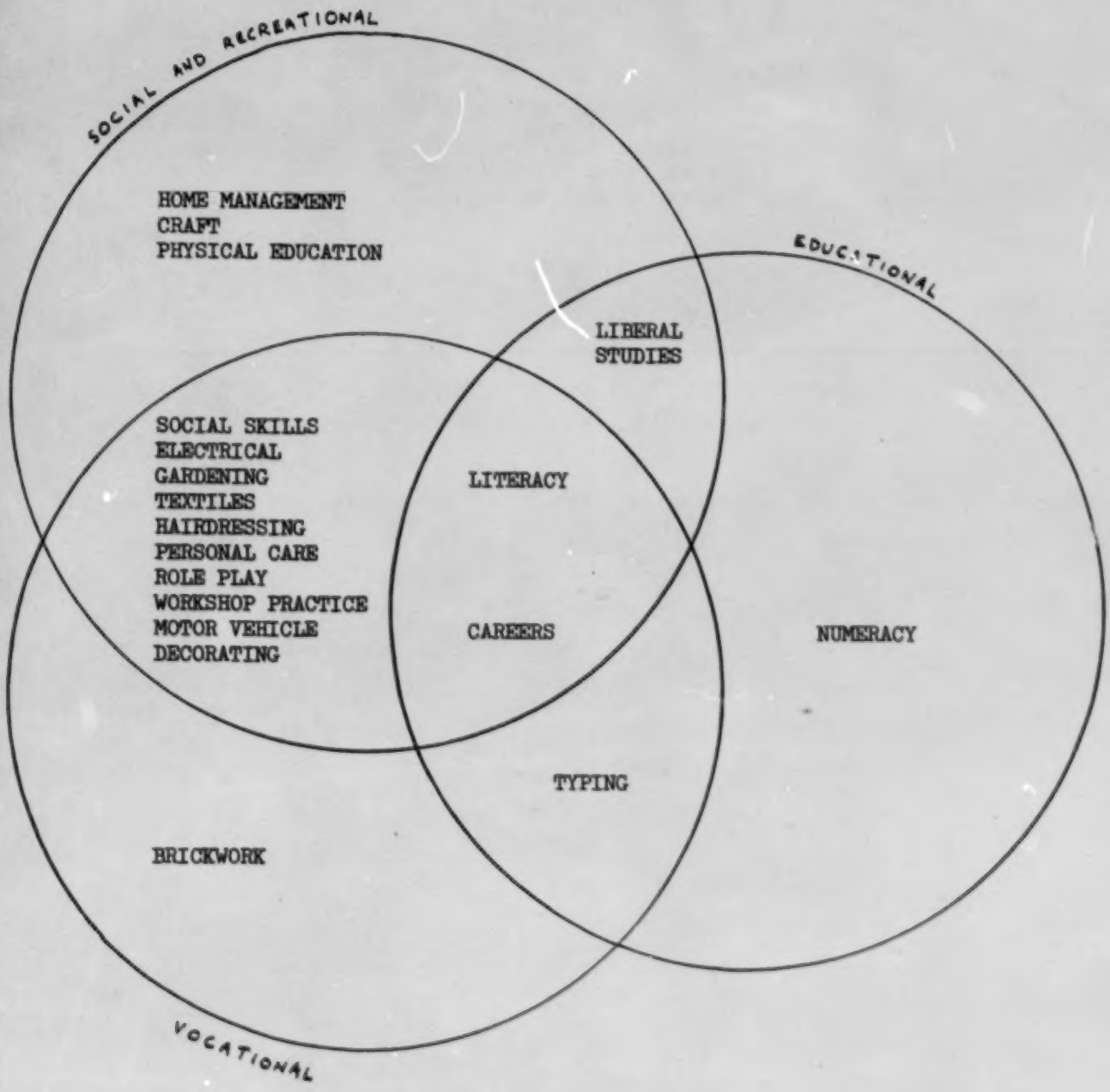
One problem is that practice never exactly follows theory! The doors at the south end of the corridor bang every ten seconds as a continuous stream of students pass by on their way to the common room. The doors to the common room have no self-closing springs. As a result throughout the day we have to close the doors to shut out the noise from voices and transistor radios and the smell of cigarette smoke. The craft room produces the usual amount of noise which travels so well through the uninsulated walls that it is sometimes impossible to teach in the first aid training room. There is, as yet, no nurse. Within our own suite of rooms none of the door-locks work, none of the cupboards have locks and the sliding doors dividing the rooms have inadequate handles and are too heavy to move. Despite these teething problems we are very well pleased with our new premises.

All other subjects taken by the students are located in specialist rooms around the College.

6. Curriculum

The work of the course is organised into three areas: (1) social and recreational (2) educational; and (3) vocational, with approximately equal amounts of time being devoted to each area, (see Diagram 1). Each student has a group core time-table but as the process of assessment continues modifications are made to allow for individual special needs. Students are regarded as individuals

DIAGRAM 1 AREAS OF CURRICULUM



and are encouraged to participate actively in all decisions which involve them. Regular tutorials are held when assessments are discussed. As a result students with particular interests will join other College courses for part of their time. At present one lad is studying for a Cook's Certificate, another is taking 'O' Level courses in English Language and General Science, a profoundly deaf girl is shortly to join a course in computer card and tape punching.

The range of academic ability within a group of only eight students can be extremely wide. Hence Literacy and Numeracy are taken on an individual basis. One or two students a year join 'O' Level courses but the majority find their level on appropriate printed schemes of work. Each student has a copy of the scheme and thus always knows where he is. This allows time for the lecturer to help students on an individual basis. Liberal studies is designed to examine subjects of topical and general interest. Presentation relies on visual stimuli - films, television, newspapers - to provoke discussion. Most of the vocational subjects are taught in groups and are regarded as a form of 'sampling'. In other words, it is not the intention 'to train' a student in a particular skill. If some degree of prowess is shown it may be felt that a student should transfer to a full-time course. This has happened in a number of cases with the result that students have been transferred to business studies, art and cookery courses.

The careers sessions are designed to help students 'to cope on their own' in terms of discovering what jobs are available, whether they have the right qualifications, skills and personality, how to look for work, how to apply for work, how to cope with work and hold down a job, how to calculate wages and deductions, etc. Through the use of drama and role play students are helped to deal with the kind of problems that they are likely to encounter at work.

Workshop practice attempts to simulate the work environment. Students learn to cope with routine repetitive jobs, to work on their own unsupervised, to work as a member of a team, to carry out instructions and to use their initiative. They learn about health and safety at work, the importance of punctuality and regular attendance

and the need to take a pride in their work. Activities, which include packing fuses for Woolworths, demand many of the skills needed to undertake a genuine job. Students also make and assemble various wooden toys and games which are sold at Christmas time. The term 'work preparation' should be interpreted as preparation for the world of work. This implies that some may not find work but nevertheless should be able to cope with life on their own. Personal care helps students with questions of health, hygiene, first aid, personal relationships and sex education, diet and health abuses such as smoking, alcohol and drugs. Home management puts some of these topics into a practical framework, (eg, budgeting and cooking, sewing and general homemaking). Design and craft and physical education are intended to give interest to after-work hours. In craft all types of materials are used, (eg, textiles, pottery, leather, macrame, etc.). In physical education, swimming, badminton, table tennis, weight training and dancing, are some of the activities offered.

7. Integration

Students on the Assessment and Work Preparation Course are treated in the same way as all other full-time students at the College. Hence, they mix as freely as other students at breaks and lunch-time. They join in College Complementary Studies and attend extra-mural student functions.

8. Work placement

When a student is assessed as being ready for work, an initial two week placement is sought in a suitable occupation near his home. This may be extended - and often is - at the request of the employer. Dependent upon the report received a student may then be employed by that firm or go on to another placement or resume work in the College. It is not the function of the course to seek employment for its students. This remains the responsibility of the careers service and the student himself.

Problems and difficulties

Any new venture has its initial difficulties. The pilot scheme, for example, comprised a part-time member of staff and a group of itinerant students who were often found wandering the corridors in search of vacant rooms unable to carry either books or equipment. When I started I was 'given' a double mobile. I made my office by knocking down the communicating wall between two cupboards. The 'office', I painted myself. I was given some money with which to order equipment. But on the day the course was due to commence although the books and equipment had arrived there was not a stick of furniture. With the help of the storeman we selected items from the furniture store at County Hall created largely by the closure of village schools. The students started a week late. Strangely perhaps, the problems experienced in those early days were not the usual ones relating to finance. They were problems of communication. The word 'handicapped' is emotive. To some it conjures up visions of 'Frankenstein's Monster' or 'The Hunchback of Notre Dame'. The following are examples of some of the comments encountered:

> "I'm not having them in my workshop turning the gas taps on and carving their names on the benches."
>
> "They can come into the kitchens but only to clean out the drawers."
>
> "They've got no right to be in a College of Further Education."
>
> "Oh, anyone can teach them."
>
> "I didn't come here to teach them."

Gradually as you talk to people, as the students are seen around the campus, as other lecturers take them for classes, fears are dispelled and attitudes change.

"Do you think it would be a good idea if a small group came up to the kitchen for a whole morning and prepared a meal?"

"What servicing (for your course) do you want next year?"

"It's tremendously rewarding working with your group."

As the Warnock Report (DES, 1978) indicated: "at present the high level of understanding and skills required to teach students with special needs is not sufficiently recognised and work with such students has a low professional status in Further Education". There is, as yet, no extra payment in FE comparable to the 'special schools' allowance'. Hence staffing and time-tabling are annual headaches. Sometimes staff don't wish to be involved because Work Preparation is Grade V work. Sometimes we are given staff because they are short of student contact hours.

The list of minor problems could go on. But on the positive side with in-service days for the whole staff, and as a result of patient negotiating, sympathetic listening and diplomatic acquiescence, the Assessment and Work Preparation Course is now firmly placed in the College Prospectus. Special facilities for the physically handicapped have been provided around the campus, (eg, ramps, handrails, toilets, etc.). Notices have been erected to remind motorists of the presence of deaf students. Also because of decisions taken by the Assessment Panel some students who might have come to us have instead been accepted on to other full-time courses.

Analysis

Eighty-four students have left the course, of whom:

52 (62%) entered open employment or were accepted on a six month Work Experience Programme. Of the eleven Work Experience Programmes completed, six have led to permanent jobs.

13	left as being unsuitable: 12 had a history of behavioural problems or psychiatric disorders.
7	transferred to other full-time courses.
4	went on to Adult Training Centres.
2	left for personal reasons.
2	went to 'The Grange' at Bookham near Guildford. (This is a residential training and workshop facility for handicapped girls who have an interest in needlework. After a three year training period the girls may be found open employment or enter the sheltered workshops.)
1	emigrated.
1	attended a Spastic Society's Assessment Centre.
1	is waiting to go on to St. Loye's College, Exeter, which runs short industrial and vocational courses.
1	went to Fairfield Opportunity Farm. (This is an exciting venture in Dilton Marsh funded by Social Services. Here a small group of mentally handicapped youngsters are engaged on a two year course. Essentially, it is a practical course but basic educational and social skills are included in the programme.)

Future developments

There are at present close links with the local adult training centre. In fact, two students from the ATC have benefited from joining the course full-time. We would like to see a day-release link course set up for suitable young people from the ATC and also for final year students from special schools and units. The idea has been received with enthusiasm by local headteachers. It is likely that a pilot half-day course will start for one school in October 1980.

We would also like some form of industrial unit or sheltered workshop to be financed for those (a) who have completed two years on the Assessment and Work Preparation Course but are still unsuitable for open employment, and (b) who are not yet ready for the Assessment and Work Preparation Course. Discussions are taking place with the Community Council for Wiltshire to see if some form of voluntary sheltered work scheme - as opposed to sheltered workshop - could be launched locally.

As the Warnock Report (DES, 1978) pointed out one of the most important factors in determining the effectiveness of FE provision for handicapped students is the attitude of staff. At present each member of staff servicing our course is given a course handbook which gives notes on the special needs of handicapped students and the kind of modifications in teaching methods that may be required. Information is also provided on day conferences and short courses of in-service training. The City and Guilds 7314 Course for teachers of the handicapped in further education was offered by the College in September 1978 but for internal college reasons did not run. It is hoped to offer it again in September 1981.

There is some talk of a college hostel being built on the campus with the finance coming from a voluntary body. The hostel would include special facilities for the handicapped. Discussion on this project is still in the early stages.

This paper has presented a very brief outline of a course which I feel is both necessary and relevant to meet the needs of many a handicapped school-leaver. My hope is that an increase in such facilities will take place so that eventually courses will be available to all who need them. Whilst this outline omits reference to the human, often humorous stories of individual students; contact with parents; methods of assessment; problems of transport, grants etc; staff and case meetings, perhaps it will embolden others to resist the financial inducements of the Manpower Services Commission in favour of courses tailor-made to meet the special educational needs of the handicapped school-leaver.

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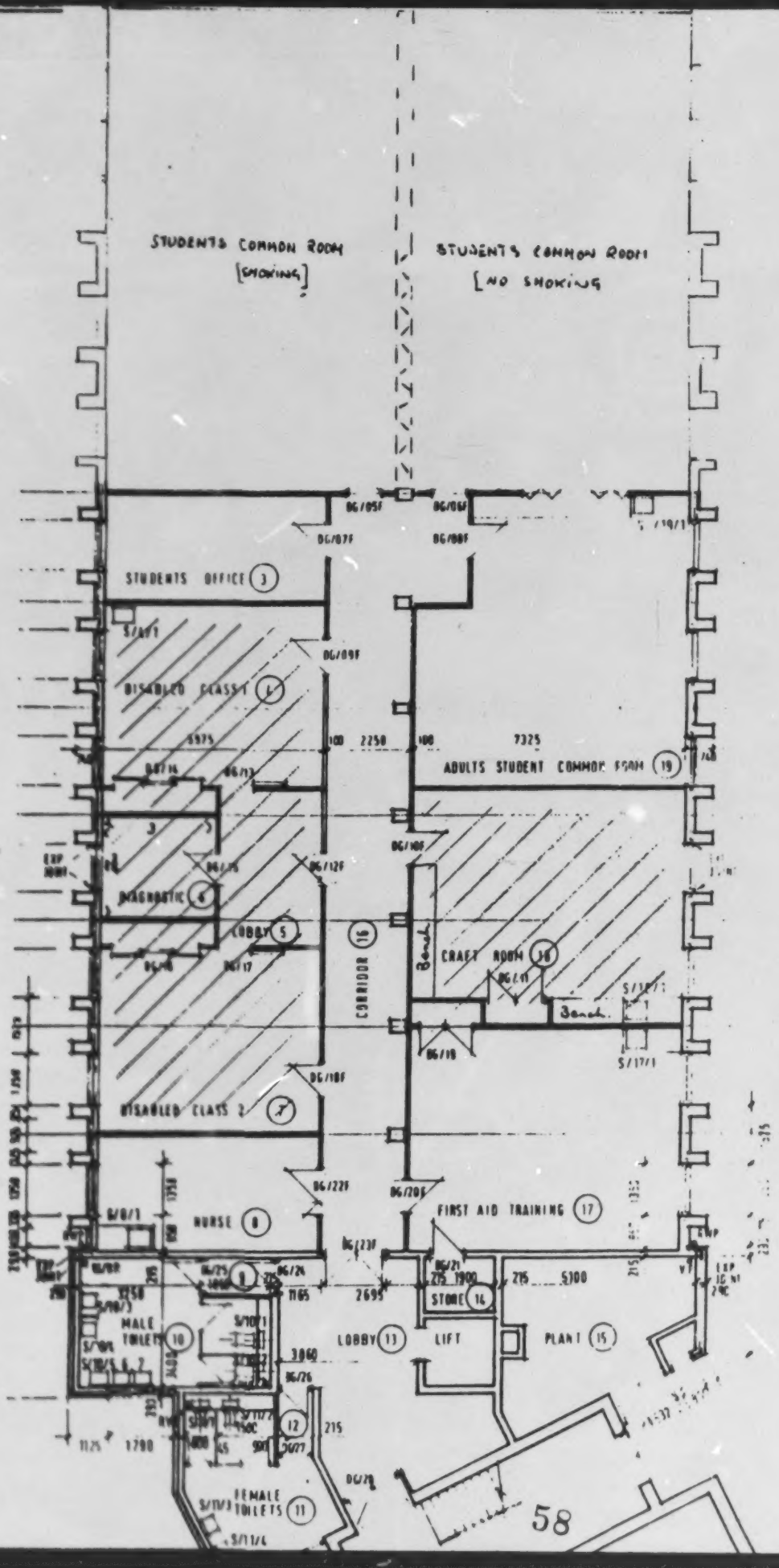
STUDENTS COMMON ROOM
[SMOKING]
STUDENTS COMMON ROOM
[NO SMOKING
STUDENTS OFFICE 3
DISABLED CLASS 1
DIAGNOSTIC 4
LOBBY 5
CORRIDOR 16
ADULTS STUDENT COMMON ROOM 19
CRAFT ROOM 18
DISABLED CLASS 2
NURSE 8
FIRST AID TRAINING 17
STORE 14
MALE TOILETS 10
LOBBY 13
LIFT
PLANT 15
FEMALE TOILETS 11
Bench
Bench
7325
2250
5975
3960
2695
1700
5100

LEISURE AND RECREATION TRAINING FOR THE HANDICAPPED: AN ASSESSMENT OF A CANADIAN PROGRAMME

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The observations in this paper are based on one month's practical experience working alongside the staff at the Vocational and Rehabilitation Research Institute (VRRI) in Calgary, Canada. The opportunity to participate in the VRRI's training programme arose from the fact that King Alfred's College, which I was attending as a full-time Diploma in Special Education student, had recently established a link with the Institute. My particular interest was to look at the recreation and leisure programme offered by the VRRI.

The VRRI, which is an affiliated institute of the University of Calgary, was established in 1969 as a research and training centre. It provides programmes for developmentally handicapped adults. Developmental handicap refers to a wide variety of conditions including mental handicap both mild and severe, cerebral palsy, physical handicap, brain damage and epilepsy. It is a term which embraces any condition that can be described as a permanent handicap. The term, therefore, refers to a situation where there has been a disruption (genetic or environmental) in the normal sequence of development which has resulted in impairment of functioning in one or more areas (sensory, motor, cognitive, developmental, etc.).

One of the main aims of the VRRI is to pass on its research and practical experience to others in the field of special education. Certainly the experience I gained during my visit will be of considerable value to me.

The recreation and leisure unit that was the object of my visit was not part of the original institute. Initially only vocational and social education skills were taught at the VRRI. The introduction of recreation and leisure came later as a result of an analysis of the reasons for twenty-five placement failures. This follow-up revealed that twenty-two of the twenty-five failed to hold their jobs because of improper use of leisure time or lack of interest in leisure pursuits. However, once the recreation and leisure unit was started and a structured programme was put in operation failures due to lack

of leisure interests dropped significantly.

The ultimate goal of the programme is to give trainees the opportunity to learn those skills which enable them to make independent decisions regarding their leisure time. This gives individuals the opportunity to develop suitable and enjoyable leisure interests. It should be remembered that realistic aims for developmentally handicapped people should be set so each person can achieve his maximum potential.

A brief explanation of the type of trainee is relevant here as this clearly affects the extent to which the programme is successful. The trainees are all over seventeen years of age and are selected by the training and assessment unit after a two week trial period. There are a great number of applicants of whom very few are selected. This is the only Institute of its kind in the province of Alberta therefore staff are able to select the type of trainee they feel most likely to benefit from the programmes provided. After a period of assessment the most appropriate type of vocational training is offered. There are two special units in the Institute for the more severely handicapped: one is for the physically handicapped (mainly trainees with cerebral palsy) and the other is for the mentally handicapped (usually in the ESNS range). There was less stress in these two units upon vocational training and more emphasis on social skills, physiotherapy and gym sessions, language and communication skills. I was involved in and subsequently evaluated the programme developed for trainees most of whom fell in the ESNM range. The leisure and recreation programme operates on four levels:

Level one

Level one is basically a physiotherapy type programme where the accent is on general remedial exercises and on retaining the mobility of those confined to wheelchairs. Any trainee who has a particular handicap requiring physiotherapy is offered the chance to start a programme. Trainees receiving physiotherapy are responsible for their own programme. In other words they have to remember what time to arrive

at the gym as their workshop supervisor will not remind them. If trainees are unable to attend or do not arrive, they must make the appropriate apologies as the recreation staff will not look for them. The physiotherapist sees trainees about once a fortnight and gives them a programme to learn. All the trainees with whom I worked knew their programmes. Even those with no language were encouraged to remember at least the first two or three exercises.

At this level the young person is being trained to function as independently as possible. Other types of programme are included at this level (eg, weight control in a weekly class for mainly Down's Syndrome trainees). A significant part of the training at this level is to help individuals understand their disability and as a result to assess how much their handicap will allow them to participate in other levels of recreation and leisure.

Level two

This level consists of activity programmes that are run throughout the year. They are divided into winter, spring and summer activities and each term a brochure is published stating the activities that will be offered the following term. For example, the winter programme includes downhill and cross country ski-ing and ice skating. The spring programme includes jogging and the summer programme includes tennis, canoeing and boating. Certain indoor activities are offered all year round (eg, basketball, floor hockey, ten pin bowling, trampolining, soccer and swimming). Obviously because of the climate outdoor activities are very much structured according to the season. In addition to physical activities other leisure pursuits are offered including cooking, singing, cassette listening, art and craft and sewing.

These programmes which are all run in the Institute by the recreation and leisure staff take place after work in the evenings and at weekends. Each trainee can sign on for any activity he wishes and feels able to do. There is a nominal registration fee for each activity. Every trainee has to complete the registration

form and register in the programmes himself. If he has any difficulty he has to take the initiative in asking for help. The only exceptions to this are trainees in the two special units. The staff in these units give a great deal of help to their trainees in selecting and registering for programmes.

At this level independent functioning is encouraged and an excellent grounding is given for the trainee to develop skills in whichever leisure pursuit he or she is interested. Each trainee joins a programme which runs for about ten weeks. During that time trainees are not only taught the skill by members of the staff but are also constantly encouraged to be independent, (ie, to appear at the correct time, to have changed into the right clothing and to have remembered a packed lunch - if needed). The implications of this kind of training are wide-ranging. Do we as teachers during physical education sessions become too intent on pupils acquiring specific skills without seeing some of the wider aspects of physical education experience, (ie, responsibility for apparatus, for changing into PE kit, providing opportunities for the more able in the class to help the less able)? The fact that VRRI trainees are older than our children does not weaken this point. I believe that given an earlier introduction to physical education a larger number of ESNM children could reach a significant level of independence.

The aim of involving trainees in Level two is twofold:

(1) to expose them to a wide variety of leisure activities;

and

(2) to teach and develop skills in specific areas thus giving the trainee confidence that he has attained a level of skill sufficient to join in activities in the community without feeling inadequate.

Some trainees will never progress beyond this level and will always need programmes run by, and support from, VRRI staff. For more able trainees Level two will be the starting point from which they quickly progress.

Level three

This is a part of the second level. Programmes at this level are designed to enhance the trainees' social and personal skills. For example, a trainee may be a good swimmer but unable to dress himself. He may like bowling and want to join the bowling league but does not know how to behave, becoming disruptive when his team loses. Therefore there is an emphasis on communication and personal skills, all of which are seen to be essential if the trainee is to interact successfully in leisure activities. Programmes for personal awareness are given including such topics as dress sense, make-up, shaving, personal hygiene.

Level four

Once trainees have acquired a number of leisure interests and the appropriate physical and social skills then help is given in the form of counselling to enable the trainee to discover where he can participate in his favourite leisure pursuits in the community. Relevant resources are sought and then the necessary practical experience gained. This is one of the final stages where teaching is involved. Volunteers are recruited from the community to work on a one-to-one basis with a trainee over an extended period of time, usually about two years. During this time great emphasis is placed on the trainee learning how to cope with leisure pursuits in the community incorporating all the skills necessary to integrate with people outside of the Institute, (eg, ability to use transport and money, ability to communicate, adoption of appropriate dress and behaviour).

The final level is that of independent management of leisure, a stage that ESNS pupils may never reach. All that is required at this stage is some form of follow-up so that any problems occurring can be identified and overcome with a minimum of fuss and bother.

Observations

I was involved in the leisure and recreation programme at all four levels, first of all working with the trainees during their therapy sessions. I was very surprised to find that all the trainees knew each exercise and some could even explain why they had to do certain exercises. At level two I spent some time in swimming and went ice skating with the trainees. I was also invited to go cross-country ski-ing which was an incredible experience. The level of skill reached by some of the trainees was very high. They were divided into ability groups and as I had never ski-ed before I joined the least proficient trainees. After about an hour I began to appreciate the degree of physical competence that was required even to be in the beginners' group. This exposure made me appreciate that perhaps we, as teachers in special education, do not always offer our children a sufficient challenge. Several of the trainees were in the ESNS range and were coping extremely well. I talked with one Down's Syndrome girl and her volunteer about their progress in the community leisure programme and was very surprised at the level of independence achieved by this young lady.

The most striking feature about the programmes at all levels is the stress on independence. Trainees asked for help when it was required - usually after having tried to do something about it themselves first. The provision for recreation and leisure within the Institute was as near to normal as possible. In other words, trainees attended the Institute primarily to work, therefore any leisure activities were undertaken outside of working hours except for physiotherapy when trainees had to seek permission from their workshop supervisor to attend. This did not include trainees in the two special units as they had group sessions daily for physiotherapy and gym.

In order to participate in any given activity each trainee was responsible for registering and attending that course. Trainees were also responsible for organising their transport, clothing and food requirements. If they needed help they asked the appropriate member of staff.

I was most impressed by the way in which all members of staff, not only recreation and leisure staff, regarded the value of leisure pursuits. At VRRI recreation was an integral and vital part of a person's lifestyle. The staff believed that there was little point in teaching someone to work and look after themselves just as skills on their own.

> "The positive use of one's leisure can have profound effects on other areas of life and in a sense, contributes to a holistic view of rehabilitation which is professed at VRRI."
>
> (Possberg, 1977)

The value of the VRRI's recreation and leisure programme was that it formed an essential part of every trainee's education whilst at the Institute. The emphasis on independence was evident throughout all levels of the programme and I believe enhanced the confidence and personal awareness shown by most of the trainees with whom I came into contact.

The teaching methods adopted were based on the following general principles:

(1) that each trainee has the prerequisite or early learning skills to comprehend the next task, thereby ensuring that the teaching is not beyond the level of the trainee;

(2) that the teaching be carried out in familiar surroundings as a trainee is less likely to be distracted by a familiar environment;

(3) that the material be presented for two fifteen minute periods with a break in between and then presented for a half-hour period; the learning of recreation skills then becomes fun with the breaks in learning being devoted to fun periods;

(4) that in teaching a specific skill that the skill should be broken down into small units (ie, task analysis): success is often achieved by teaching the final step first and backward chaining until the entire skill is mastered; and

(5) that over-learning be built into the programme so that from the time a skill is first acquired constant repetition be undertaken until it is mastered.

All these methods were used by the recreation and leisure unit staff and would seem to be extremely effective with most of the trainees. I was unable to detect any weakness in the programme. Admittedly, the population involved was carefully chosen and therefore would appear to have been selected to fit closely to the success requirements of the VRRI.

Conclusion

The experience gained whilst working in the recreation and leisure unit has proved invaluable. Prior to the visit I had certain preconceptions about the role of physical education with ESNS pupils and had never really considered the possibility of providing a programme so strongly emphasising independence and leisure. The exposure to such a novel concept has therefore led me to consider changing the emphasis within my own teaching from physical education to physical recreation.

I now firmly believe that whatever type of handicap is presented, the abilities of that person are the important factors. In other words, work on the things he can do and the ways in which he may become independent at whatever level. Everyone is capable of enjoying some form of recreative or leisure activity and it is our job as teachers in special education to ensure that all pupils are given the opportunity to develop their abilities, to learn as many skills as they can and to become as independent as possible in the area of physical recreation.

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AN ANALYSIS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED IN SWEDEN

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Wessex Studies in Special Education, 1981, Vol. 1, pp. 75-100

During November 1979, with the aid of a travel grant from the Commercial Education Trust, London, and a short-term scholarship from the Swedish Institute in Stockholm, I was able to spend over three weeks studying the Swedish experience of the integration of children and older students with learning difficulties into normal classes, and especially into commerce and clerical studies courses. In addition I visited schools for the severely mentally retarded and the severely physically handicapped, experiences which helped to place the other schools in perspective.

Through the kind co-operation of the National Board of Education I was able to study conditions in a number of centres, including Gothenburg, Linköping and the Greater Stockholm area. I also had an opportunity to discuss the training of teachers of commerce and clerical studies and of special teachers at the respective training establishments in Stockholm. Much valuable information on the problem of functional illiteracy was obtained from meetings at the Institute of Education of the university of Linköping.

This report is arranged in four sections:

(1) the integration of the handicapped in normal classes,

(2) the contribution of "commerce" studies to the education of the handicapped,

(3) functional illiteracy, and

(4) the training of teachers of commerce and clerical studies.

Part 1 - The Integration of the Handicapped in Normal Classes

In 1978 some 1,038,000 pupils attended the compulsory comprehensive school between the ages of 7 and 16 - about twenty-five per cent of them receiving some form of special education. Most of these pupils are not disabled in the usual sense but have reading and writing difficulties, are slow learners, etc.

The situation for deaf and hard of hearing pupils is that about thirty per cent (the totally deaf) attend special schools, about twenty per cent attend special hearing classes in normal schools and about

fifty per cent are integrated in normal schools. For the blind and the near blind, special schools take less than ten per cent; some six per cent attend special classes, and the rest, including over three per cent who are totally blind, are integrated in normal classes.

Two terms dominate Swedish thinking about the handicapped - both physically handicapped and mentally retarded: these are, firstly, integration - in school, community and workplace - and, secondly, normalization - that so far as possible the handicapped should be able to fill their educational, social and vocational roles in such a way as to "stand out" as little as possible from "normal" people. The aims of integration and normalization are being pursued jointly at all educational levels, from nursery to university: provision is made for attendants, for housing and medical care, and for specific curricular developments in secondary education on behalf of the handicapped. At university level there is, of course, no provision for the integration of the mentally retarded, and in practice the course content, vocational aims and even the physical arrangement of the buildings do not lend themselves easily to participation by the physically handicapped. In principle their attendance at university is promoted by reading services to the blind, the rendering of text books in Braille or on tape, and the provision of interpreters for the deaf and personal assistance. Linköping university offers a range of interesting courses in business studies. No physically handicapped students are currently attending these courses, two of the most exciting of which are the 4-year degree in Industrial Management Engineering, a combined management and technical degree, and the degree in management with the fourth year being spent at an appropriate centre abroad, e.g. in England at the Anglian Regional Management Centre, Danbury, at the University of Aston in Birmingham, or at Cranfield Institute of Technology. Linköping is also in the process of developing links with the university of Aberdeen. It is plainly no easy task for a physically handicapped student, however enthusiastic, to participate in courses of this nature.

Information on integration at the Upper Secondary level was gathered initially at Ljungstedska Upper Secondary school, Linköping.

This is the largest of the four upper secondary schools in the city and is the most vocationally orientated. It must be remembered that the term "upper secondary" is somewhat misleading, in that many of the courses are such as would be provided under the heading of further or continuing education in Britain. Ljungstedska has some 1,500 students on full-time (one-year or more) courses, another 300 on short courses and some 800 attending part-time.

In the distribution and clerical studies line there is one class for slow learners. It is admitted that the greatest help is social rather than educational. A group of five were observed doing business arithmetic, some using electronic calculators, and the best tackling such problems as invoice price with sales tax or discount adjustment. The poorest student, on the other hand, was finding the cost of a number of items from a given unit cost, i.e. simple multiplication with decimal point (1 Swedish krona = 100 öre). A group of seven were typing .. very slowly, all having difficulty with reading, writing and spelling - but inherent was the thought that all three skills will be improved through practice on the typewriter. Finally in this class was a single student, the victim of a road accident which had left her with restricted mobility and difficulty in speaking. This normally bright girl indicated that she preferred to use her head to either her hand or a machine for the business calculations on which she was engaged.

Also observed was a typing class in the second year of the distribution and clerical studies course, with the regular class teacher, together with one girl having learning problems being tutored by a student teacher on teaching practice. This would be a normal situation even in Britain, except that the degree of difficulty being experienced by this one moderately mentally retarded girl was greater than would be found in this country in a second-year typing class timetabled for three to four hours a week in both years of the course. The presence of a second teacher in the classroom was not regarded as exceptional, and, together with the large number of attendants and helpers seen at this and other schools "in charge" of the physically handicapped and mentally retarded students, it builds up a picture of much unemployment being eliminated in this and other ways associated with the care of the handicapped.

An integral part of the vocational studies in the upper secondary school is the work experience programme, which occupies half the total time of the second (and subsequent) year. The pattern varies from school to school, some placing students in blocks of weeks at a time, others sending students out for two and a half days a week. As far as possible the handicapped are encouraged to take part, for it is a basic principle of Swedish welfare that every effort shall be made not only to de-institutionalize the handicapped but also to place them for employment in the open market in the first instance.

Skärholmen - a suburb of Stockholm with a large immigrant population (Finns, Turks, Armenians) has a modern upper secondary school of ground and first floor only, with lifts, ramps and other special facilities for the handicapped. Like Ljungstedska in Linköping, Skärholmen has an increasing roll, but no attempt is being made to indicate when a peak might be reached as much will plainly depend on government policy in regard to immigration and on the speed with which the existing immigrant population increases.

The school, with several spastic, muscular dystrophy and other physically handicapped cases, has full-time speech - and physiotherapists, and there is a substantial commitment of staff and other resources to provide individual and group attention. Stafan, a spastic, was receiving individual attention in typewriting - five periods a week. His body movements were violent, and it was difficult to imagine him integrated in a normal class. However, at other times - e.g. in clerical studies - Stafan works with a group of regular students, and was due to lead his group, on the day following my visit, to a local office to study mail room organisation. He was responsible for the preparation of the worksheet to be used by students on the visit. His (electric) typewriter had been specially adapted to accommodate his imprecise finger movements, and produced large bold typescript, which appears to be common practice for both physically handicapped and mentally retarded students of typewriting. It is also common for machines to be fitted with correcting ribbons, the argument being that students find it easier to manipulate a correcting ribbon mechanism than to correct in any other way, and, more importantly, that

the ease of correction - and the resultant "good looks" of the work produced - greatly increases learner confidence and motivation.

Skärholmen holds a wide variety of communication aids for the handicapped, notably a range of modifications to electric typewriters, including typewriter-mounted CCTV camera and associated display screen, and remote keyboards operable by stylus, foot or other pressure. These aids are being developed by the medical profession, the universities and industry all over the world, and the Swedish Institute for the Handicapped collects information and prototypes from all available sources. Sweden is fortunate in having home industries of world class in the office equipment, telecommunications, electronics and data processing fields.

In the distribution and clerical studies line Skärholmen has two parallel classes of mixed handicapped and normal students. The two teachers take turns in planning 14 days' work at a time and, for all subjects except typewriting, the students work in groups of four at a table, being randomly selected and re-grouped every 14 days, the aim being to prevent the formation of ethnic and anti-social groups. Each physically handicapped student has an assistant, occasionally another student, often a paid helper.

From the varying degrees of handicap observed, and the difference in response from the handicapped, one can agree that for many students such integration is primarily of social, rather than academic, advantage. One very quiet spastic girl was unable to make any noticeable response in the office practice lesson on filing and indexing, although it must be assumed that she could hear what was being said by the teachers and the students around her. It was surely of such a student that the lecturer at the college for the training of special teachers was thinking when he gave as his opinion that such integration "isolates the handicapped in the normal classroom". This was, it should be noted, the only occasion on which such a view was expressed, and it probably reflected the speaker's preference for special schools staffed by special teachers.

The lesson at Skärholmen on filing and indexing was given by two class teachers to a combined class of 18 students, including three

physically handicapped, two with assistants, the third with a student helper. One girl in a wheel chair was able to write her own exercises, the second had her assistant act as her amanuensis, while the third was the spastic who could not visibly communicate. The lesson was conducted by talk, demonstration, worksheets and text-book.

One can only conclude that Sweden has achieved a commendable level of integration of those with learning difficulties in normal classes, but my own impression, confirmed by the opinions of various educational practitioners and politicians met during my visit, is that - particularly in the vocational courses of the upper secondary level - the pace of integration has slackened considerably in recent years. The current level of integration is much lower than was anticipated in, say, 1974 when the Commission on Teacher Education was formed.

Enviable is the extent to which the handicapped have been de-institutionalized and personnel committed to their care. Striking is the extent to which young people of both sexes are taking up this work.

Part 2 - The Contribution of Commerce Studies

From the diagram on the following page showing the organisation of the education of the mentally retarded in Sweden it will be seen that the special school offers two levels of education over and above the individual training (or separate instruction) given at home or in institutions to profoundly retarded children and young people.

For moderately retarded children up to the age of 17 the "training school" provides opportunities for personal development in the context of the everyday world. The key principles are stated as "experience, remember, recognise", and are used to train students to cope with personal care as well as inevitable contacts with their economic and social environment, e.g. the handling of money, the use of the telephone, the ability to tell the time, etc.

Mildly mentally retarded children are expected to follow a much more normal course of study, including the mother tongue, mathematics and a range of practical subjects, but with approximately one-quarter of the total time spent on vocational and social orientation.

Beyond the age of 17 the vocational special school offers three levels of training and education: for the profoundly mentally retarded a further basic training programme, development of earlier work which continues to be based on activity associated with adaptation to normal daily life. For the mildly mentally retarded there is vocational education with courses in distribution and clerical studies, including typewriting, and in storekeeping (as well as in homecraft, workshop practice, etc.). Much of the course content is similar to that offered in the two-year vocational lines of the upper secondary school but, because of the longer time taken by the mentally retarded to absorb new knowledge and acquire new skills, the course extends for up to four (exceptionally up to six) years. It is intended that these students should be adequately prepared for employment in the open market or in sheltered workshops. Moderately mentally retarded students, with employment opportunities restricted to sheltered workshops or day centres, are offered courses in vocational training, chiefly in specific and limited areas of textiles, wood- and metal-working and homecraft. Here no attempt is made to provide a complete vocational education. Such students may also continue with certain normal school subjects, with the practical aim of increasing their ability to read simple texts, to count money, fill in forms and cope with more that is important for daily life in an advanced country.

The Vocational Special School in Gothenburg caters for students in the age range 17 to 21 (exceptionally 23) with an IQ of 50 to 70. In addition to the mobile mentally retarded, there are some wheelchair cases. All lessons are double periods of approximately two hours, and the teaching methods used are a mixture of chalk and talk, practical activity, discussion and worksheets. Theoretical studies include book-keeping. No text book is considered wholly appropriate, and the teaching makes good use of the students' own ideas and enthusiasms. Here was clear evidence of the value of proceeding at the right pace, with material graded in small, easy steps, and skilful class management by sympathetic teachers, with plenty of time at their disposal.

Probably the most striking feature of all during this visit was the absence of the rigid British approach to the timetable, especially when

this involves presentation for public examinations. Swedish students have traditionally enjoyed a freedom from the emphasis on speed of learning and speed of performance in the examination room that characterises the British system. Certainly the days are gone when the university student could present himself to his professor for examination when he considered himself ready, but one cannot help being impressed by a system which is so flexible and so comparatively free from public examination pressure that a normal two-year course can be extended to four or even six years, depending on the speed of learning. At the end of that time the mentally retarded and physically handicapped have in a surprising number of cases achieved a comparable level of knowledge and skill with those who complete the course in two years. One of the hand-outs from the Vocational Special School in Gothenburg is headed "We are all human beings, but different", and this title underlines the Swedish approach to education, not only at the special school, with a practical attitude to individual differences that attempts to give "to each according to his need".

In Gothenburg the typewriting lessons too are given in two-hour blocks, twice a week. It is recognised that this involves a lengthy period of sitting but a deliberate attempt is being made to develop the ability to sit at a job of work, to develop the muscles and the quality of perseverance at a (probably fairly routine) task. The Storekeeping course is a combination of both theory and practice. The centre offering this course keeps materials stored for all five separate buildings that go to make up the Vocational Special School. Under supervision the students organise, label and clean shelves and drawers: they read requisitions, extract the stores, make up the parcels and address them. They record the movements of the items, not only in terms of stock but also in terms of the teacher and centre drawing the materials from store. These records involve both alphabetical and chronological filing and indexing.

Clerical studies again has the emphasis on activity methods and performance tasks. The school has a range of office equipment, including stencil cutting, duplicating and photocopying facilities, which the students use along with demonstrations and worksheets. The teacher's

office adjoins the clerical studies classroom and students can leave at any point in any lesson to answer the telephone, take a message, and so on.

The Gothenburg students go out on practical work experience, after the first year, for periods of from two to four weeks at a time. It is hoped that from the third year onwards students will be offered employment on the open market. If not, they will eventually start work in sheltered workshops, even if this means their staying on at school until the age of 23. There is nationally a great reluctance to allow students to leave school without job prospects.

Reference has already been made, in the first part of this report, to Ljungstedska upper secondary school, in Linköping. At this school there is nominal integration of special classes, which share the campus with the normal school. The philosophy behind this move reflects the view that a better feeling is thereby generated locally, as special schools are financed by county councils, not municipalities (which finance "normal" education), and when the two are seen together this diminishes the prejudice that special schools are taking an unfair share of resources. Students in the special school use workshops and other specialist classrooms of the normal school, as well as share the refectory and the library.

Clerical studies are not popular in this special school, principally because of poor employment prospects, a view expressed in other parts of the country. Even from the technically-oriented courses (metal, wood and textiles) only around thirty per cent of the moderately and mildly retarded obtain employment in the open market, the rest are placed in the county's sheltered workshops and day occupational centres.

Despite the rejection of office training, a small group seen during a "training for daily living" class was using reference books and catalogues, learning how to order and how to calculate the cost of purchases. It is probably a reflection of the length of time Swedes have lived with a sales tax that such a calculation did not appear to be daunting. Of course the teacher was making use of the class's interests (all boys), and the work was related to motor cars and their spares.

One boy in this group, aged 20, lives in a flat for which he pays a rent of 500 kr a month (including heating and lighting) out of his early state pension of 1,800 kr a month. A further deduction of 400 kr is made for regular savings, leaving 900 kr a month to meet food, clothing and sundry expenses. He receives assistance, paid by the county, a few hours each week to check on letters, forms, spending and personal hygiene. (N.B. £1 = c. 9 kr).

Others in the group live in a student home, up to four or five together, which calls for a total staff of six or seven. The commitment of staff to the assistance and supervision of the handicapped, who have been largely de-institutionalized in this way, is most impressive, especially as such assistants, attendants, cleaners and supervisors are of both sexes and include many young people (who might otherwise be unemployed?). The genuine community spirit that is being generated in this way is an advantage that cannot be measured in money terms and is undoubtedly a bonus related to such a method of reducing unemployment - even if one could be certain that there is such a conscious policy.

In the Greater Stockholm area Häggvik's Vocational Special School has a roll of 80 to 100 moderately and mildly retarded, as well as a small number of physically handicapped in wheelchairs. Like Gothenburg it provides a four- (exceptionally six) year course of vocational special training or education, depending on ability. The basic business-oriented courses are the equivalent of the two-year distribution and clerical studies courses of the normal upper secondary school, as well as a special course in storekeeping.

The distribution and clerical studies course has two classes, including four students in wheelchairs, and the subjects covered include distribution and product knowledge, typewriting and office services. At Häggvik the students are allowed to have as many trial periods as they wish on the lines offered. These experience periods are supported by aptitude tests, both theoretical and practical, as well as discussion of personal aims and ambitions. Such time is considered to be of great importance for the students' personal development, and stress is laid on the acquisition of good work habits and sound relationships

within a group. Remedial classes are used for speech, number and such basics as the clock.

Kista, a branch of Häggvik, appeared to take the "best" students, with an emphasis on vocational education rather than training. The three class teachers taking the two groups in distribution and clerical studies and the one in storekeeping, with 11-12 students in each group, were specialists in typewriting, office studies and storekeeping and distribution respectively.

The Storekeeping course attempts to familiarize students with, for example, ordering/taking orders by telephone, pricing and costing, packing and weighing, labelling, use of cash register, knowledge of transport, and all associated records. The course lacked the realism of that at Gothenburg (where supplies were held for a number of centres and the students and staff were responsible for all real stock movements), for at Kista the situation with advertising dummies and teaching stocks of stationery and sundries, was noticeably less motivating to both staff and students, and was also closer to some of the distribution course material used in centres in Britain. The Kista students, like the rest of their year group in the Swedish school system, go out on work experience in half-time blocks during spring and autumn of each year after the first. If employment on the open market is offered in or after year three the student may accept and leave school.

What is novel at Kista are the links with the local comprehensive school, whereby pupils are sent to the vocational special school for "work experience". At Häggvik there is "reverse integration", with students from the local upper secondary school being integrated in the special school for workshop practice.

These school visits provided ample evidence to support my contention that there are many topics and subject areas in the general field of "commerce" which can be of great help, both socially and vocationally, to those with mental retardation or physical handicap. All who have a hand in the education and training of the handicapped share the concern that the open market is failing to provide employment opportunities to match the level of knowledge and skill

possessed by the applicants - who are plainly underemployed if the "best" work they can find is in sheltered workshops making ring-binders (a standard product). It is not only in the field of clerical work that there is deep dissatisfaction: Sweden has had for some years a "Promotion of Employment Act" which grants certain rights of priority to handicapped applicants for work. This law, effected after full consultation with trade unions and employers' organisations, has not been enforced by the Employment Service. Employers appear reluctant to offer contracts of employment to the handicapped, despite state provision of from twenty-five to ninety per cent of the handicapped person's salary, according to the degree of handicap.

Part 3 - Functional Illiteracy in Sweden

Recently Professor Eve Malmquist, an expert in the psychology of reading and writing, has become increasingly concerned with the "new illiteracy" - the lack of a sufficient level of knowledge and skill in writing and reading necessary to adequate functioning as a member of a complex society. As a result of research into this problem he concludes that more than a million Swedes (out of a total population of around eight million) lack this minimum ability: that each year some twenty per cent of school leavers fail to reach a necessary level of functional literacy, i.e. have the ability to cope with the reading and writing demands of everyday life.

A group of adults was tested on their ability to complete three standard forms - one relating to national insurance (a simple form notifying change of circumstances) and two to post office transactions. Only twelve per cent of the test group completed all three forms correctly, seventeen per cent being able to complete the national insurance form. Professor Malmquist does not state that these figures also reflect the poor design of official forms! - his argument is that the citizen is, willy nilly, faced with them and requires a level of literacy that must be judged on criteria different from those traditionally used to define illiteracy. He points out that almost all these adults were able to spell and read

the individual words on the forms, but were unable to interpret and correctly respond to the complete text.

According to Ulla-Britt Persson, the project leader in the Institute of Education at the univereity of Linköping, the cause of this startling situation is the failure of the comprehensive school to recognise and correct early weakness in language, with the gap between ability and the demands made on the learner consequently widening throughout the school and out into everyday life. The compulsory comprehensive school in Sweden is organised in three levels - Years 1-3, 4-6 and 7-9 (or 10 in special schools). It is felt that many children have difficulties in the early years that are either not recognised or, if they are, are not corrected at that stage. The difficulties are exacerbated as the children move up the school, where they meet teachers who assume that the level of language ability is adequate. It is further suggested that the situation in the upper levels is aggravated by the confusion created in many children's minds by the need to keep on the move from room to room and to constantly meet many different teachers. Ulla-Britt Persson also considers that Swedish teaching is often too theoretical for pupils with learning difficulties and not sufficiently related to everyday needs such as the completion of essential forms, the reading of instructions for equipment operation, of safety regulations, etc.

Professor Malmquist has found that the number of special classes in the comprehensive school has gone down dramatically in the last eight to nine years and, in his opinion, integration is now at its limit. He has concluded that at the end of compulsory school (Year 9) three per cent of pupils are below the level of 10-year olds in Year 3 in literacy.

In particular he has studied Years 1 to 3 in reading and writing skills. Slow readers and writers with poor motor ability were stimulated when given an opportunity to use a typewriter, and such increase in motivation was also noticed at higher grades. The positive influence of the machine was especially noticeable in creative writing, and in addition to better and more easily written essays there emerged a superiority in spelling over similar pupils

who had not access to the typewriter. A comparison was also made of typewriting with two contrasting styles of handwriting, cursive and script. The script style proved clearer than the cursive, with better pupil recognition for both reading and writing - but the typewriter proved more helpful than either style of handwriting.

It is now customary for typewriters to be used in special classes in Swedish schools where pupils have communication difficulties. This was also the case at the Manilla School for the Deaf, Stockholm, a national comprehensive special school, where the typewriter is used in classes in mother tongue as well as in a two-hour a week option course in typewriting.

The suggestion that children with learning difficulties suffer from having physically to move around the upper school and from meeting many different teachers finds an echo in Britain when children move from primary to secondary school. The situation is perhaps worse in Sweden, where the class teacher - at least at the low and middle levels - carries a heavy burden of subject matter with little relief from visiting specialists for, say, music, art or physical education. Indeed, one of the major and most controversial recommendations of LUT 74 (Teachers for a School in Transition) is the creation of an integrated course of comprehensive school teacher education taking four years for all three categories (junior level, middle level and subject teachers), which will equal the duration of the existing course of training for subject teachers but which will be one year longer than the existing course for middle level teachers and one and a half years longer than for junior level teachers. "IT IS PRESUMED THAT THE NEW EDUCATION WILL QUALIFY TRAINEES TO TEACH AT ANY LEVEL OF THE 9+YEAR COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL." (LUT Report Summary, p.12). This does not mean, however, that the new teachers will be able to teach all the subjects in the curriculum: it is made clear in the report that there will be a basic block "communicatively orientated", qualifying all teachers to take Swedish and mathematics in the lower grades of elementary school and one of these two subjects in higher grades as well. Then, after the basic block, the student should specialise in one of a number of

alternative subject areas, these being social subjects, science subjects (both these categories including ecology), and modern languages in the academic subjects; practical and aesthetical subjects (which do not include commerce or clerical studies); "other specialities" - to cater for new specialisation needs within the total framework of the new scheme, the example given being teachers of mother tongue for immigrants.

Should these recommendations be implemented, the comprehensive school pupil would then meet considerably fewer teachers at the upper level, where the same teacher might take, for example, Swedish, French and social sciences, and the mathematics teacher would also take the natural sciences. It is interesting that English, together with practical and aesthetical subjects (music, physical education and art) will continue to be obligatory for all teachers intending to serve mainly in lower grades. These teachers would also in future specialise in either social subjects or science subjects, which would make possible a system of two teachers per class, thus not only reinforcing subject teaching (particularly welcome in the case of science), but also introducing pupils to the practice of changing teachers for different subjects.

These are some of the more radical proposals to improve the quality of education in the compulsory comprehensive school. In addition to the reinforcement of subject teaching the proposals clearly aim to minimize the learning difficulties that arise from the contrast in organisation (and methods?) in the junior and upper levels.

There can be no doubt that an important contribution to functional literacy is being made by the "real life" content and activity methods of the distribution and office studies courses (albeit modified where appropriate) in upper secondary schools. It is unfortunate, therefore, that in the comprehensive school only typewriting - and that as an option in the upper level - is available to pupils. LUT 74 is silent on the future of typewriting, and it would be sad if the proposals for the schools of the '80s were to ignore the current situation in the upper secondary school and the

weight of Professor Malmquist's evidence from throughout the comprehensive school itself.

Part 4 - The Training of Teachers of Commerce and Clerical Studies*

The teacher of commerce and clerical studies in Sweden is officially designated a teacher of vocational subjects, and the course of professional training is of one year's duration. Centres offering such a course are Stockholm, Mölndal in the west, Malmö in the south and Umea in the north.

In teaching, as in other areas of employment in Sweden, each "job" is formally described, rated and graded for salary. The vocational commerce teacher has the following range of employment grades within the system:

(i) in the comprehensive school: teacher of typewriting,

(ii) in the upper secondary school: teacher

(a) of one or more of the subjects: typewriting; office studies; typewriting and office studies; secretarial practice and shorthand,

(b) of distribution, together with consumer and product education,

(c) in certain related subject areas such as display, receptionist duties, medical secretarial work,

(d) contributing to the pharmaceutical technician's course (e.g. typewriting, communication, products).

In practice teachers in the upper secondary school - which is voluntary and covers much of the work done in further education colleges in Britain - are expected to offer one of the following three groups of subjects:

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* Terminology used by National Board of Education in English Language documentation.

(1) shorthand, typewriting and office practice,

(2) typewriting and office practice,

(3) distribution and consumer etc. education.

Entrance to training is competitive, and the basic requirements for admission are:

(1) satisfactory completion of at least two years of a course in the upper secondary school corresponding to the area in which it is intended to teach, i.e. commerce and clerical studies. Applicants may also be considered who in some other way have achieved a comparable level of knowledge.

(2) an attested level of practical skills acquired through a minimum of three years of full time employment, with comprehensive experience of the areas in which it is proposed to teach.

For candidates intending to teach shorthand the basic requirement is of a higher standard, namely, the satisfactory completion of a three-year course in the economics and languages line in the upper secondary school and satisfactory marks from a completed course in Swedish, English and German or French from the three-year economics or economics and languages line. Students who intend to teach typewriting should hold a certificate of competence in typewriting. For office studies the requirement is satisfactory completion of a course of at least two years office studies in the distribution and office studies line of the upper secondary school and have satisfactorily completed a course covering at least two years of business economics. Intending teachers of distribution should have completed satisfactorily at least a two-year course in distribution and at least a two-year course in business economics.

It is stressed that the obligatory work experience must have been allround: for typewriting and office studies, for example, the experience should have covered typewriting, machine calculations, form design, mail handling, filing and indexing, communication aids, reprographics, general office routines and data processing. For the

field of distribution and consumer and product education: practical experience in the buying, selling and storekeeping of goods.

The above are minimum standards, and entry is competitive, applicants being ranked in order of their "points" obtained from secondary and higher education and from practical experience. Although to British eyes these minimum academic standards appear surprisingly low, in practice it is common for teachers to have higher academic qualifications, or longer practical experience (and the value of this obligatory work experience should not be underrated).

Kjell, for example, is a young man of 30 teaching in the upper secondary school. He entered college of education with the equivalent of an honours degree in economics. Berit, 40 years old, trained as a teacher after first obtaining a private secretary's diploma (after two years full time study at a college of commerce) then working for several years in that capacity. On the other hand Sven, teaching consumer and product education, had no higher education other than his upper secondary course, but for over seven years he held a responsible post in relevant employment.

Each course in the upper secondary school carries a number of points, to a maximum of 10; a completed course of studies at a university or college carries a maximum of 10.8; experience as a teacher of the subject (unqualified) rates 2 points for each year to a maximum of 10 points. For work experience there is a maximum of 16 points. If two or more applicants have an equal number of points selection is made on the order of priority in which the college of education was chosen, otherwise selection is by lot. Where examination results are taken into the calculation, such as from a university course, the "merit points" awarded increase with the quality of the examination results.

After admission to the course candidates are immediately subjected to what are termed diagnostic tests in shorthand and typewriting, the shorthand involving tests on both Swedish and English systems. In addition to a theory test the two systems each carry a speed and transcription test: for Swedish there are two five-minute passages

dictated at 100 words a minute, with 45 minutes being allowed for transcription. The English shorthand test consists of two three-minute passages dictated at 75 words a minute, with an allowance of 25 minutes for transcription. Candidates who fail on the first shorthand test are re-tested later in the first term. Failure in these second tests will result in the discontinuance of training in shorthand methods and the teaching qualification will be restricted to office studies and typewriting.

The typewriting test is in two parts: one a combined speed and accuracy test of 15 minutes duration, the other consisting of two production tests covering business letters and tabulated material, with some typing from manuscript. No indication is given in the college prospectus of the fate of any student who fails at this stage. Presumably the test is geared for success (and one must keep in mind the essential prerequisites of a certificate of competence AND practical office experience). Without doubt the results will be used to provide a rank order within the course and further merit points for future use in the promotion stakes.

Of the total course hours of c. 1,000, approximately half the time is spent on teaching practice and one-third on education, psychology and methods. This theoretical part of the course merits little comment, consisting as it does of much the same ground as would be covered on a comparable course in Britain, e.g. aims of education, organisation of the school system, theories of learning, adolescent development, health education etc. with only passing reference to the needs of the handicapped.

What is perhaps somewhat unusual, but totally praiseworthy, is the training in "vocational guidance" related to a basic course in economics and industrial relations. More surprising still is the inclusion of a multi-disciplinary subject area - "The role of the sexes". The aims of this are worth stating in full:

> "At the end of his training the student teacher shall be able to observe and analyse attitudes to the sex role in himself and others in text books, the mass media, etc.

"shall have taught himself to avoid spreading sex-discriminatory points of view,

"shall be able to help pupils to question and discuss knowledgeably such relationships in home, school and community life as are influenced by the role of the sexes, and

"shall handle confidently facts and methods of teaching relating to the sex role at different levels (in the school)."

The pattern of teaching practice may vary from one college to another but, in whichever school he goes, the student teacher will have a staff teacher as tutor ("leader by the hand" is the delightful literal translation of the Swedish) to whom extra payment is made for the responsibility. The practice in Stockholm is for the student teacher to have a two-week spell of observation at the start of the course, this being essentially a school observation and familiarisation period. Later there follow five weeks of subject observation and supervised practice in teaching. In the spring and early summer a total of 15 weeks is spent in schools, the student increasingly assuming responsibility and growing independent of his tutor. Indeed, during the latter part of this period the tutor is encouraged to be away from school for a week on his own in-service training, the student being left in full charge.

On completing the year's training the new teacher collects 40 points for having finished the course, together with any merit points awarded on the final assessment, in which the school tutor's rating counts. These points are added to those on which admission was granted, all to be grist to the mill of appointment and promotion within the system.

Postscript

Towards the end of 1979 there was published the report of the 1974 Swedish Commission on Teacher Education (LUT 74). The bulk of this report is concerned with revision of training for teachers in the comprehensive school, but the Commission has also proposed that

the training of teachers of practical, aesthetical and vocational subjects should be augmented and prolonged. At the present time the training of teachers for the commerce and clerical sector comprises 40 points, mainly in the form of practical pedagogical training. LUT 74 proposes that this training should be augmented by the addition of an equal volume of subject studies, the purpose of the prolongation being "to widen the professional knowledge of the teacher category concerned and to develop communicative skills."

It should be added that there has been a change of government in Sweden since the Commission was appointed in 1974, and the feeling in the country at the present time is that the coalition government now in power will be reluctant to carry out the recommendations of LUT 74, which have aroused opposition from many sectors of the teaching profession.

Recommendations

(1) Every effort should be made in Britain to accommodate the physically handicapped and the mentally retarded in normal schools and to encourage them to attempt a normal curriculum.

(2) At the same time vocational special schools should be developed, in which the role of commerce studies should be recognised. Existing special schools should immediately organise appropriate clerical studies.

(3) The typewriter should play a leading part in the promotion of literacy.

(4) All school pupils would benefit from subject-matter that includes form-filling. Pupils capable of designing forms should be trained to do so. Most subjects, not only clerical studies, can be used as a vehicle for form-filling and form-design.

(5) Greater attention should be paid to "learner readiness" and individual differences in relation to the curriculum. Schools should be so organised as to allow slow learners to spend much longer on a particular syllabus. Less emphasis must be placed on public examinations and the concept of "hurdles" at fixed points in the pupil's school life.

(6) From 15 years of age many pupils would benefit from part-time work experience - say two or three days a week in the last two years of compulsory education.

(7) Young people of both sexes should be encouraged to work with the handicapped (as an alternative to unemployment) both in schools and in the wider community.

(8) Teachers of commerce and clerical studies should have spent a substantial time in relevant employment before commencing training.

(9) The professional training should include a study of the contribution their subject can make to the education of those with learning difficulties.

(10) There is a good case for the provision of colleges of special education.

ATTACHMENT

THE EDUCATION OF MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN IN SWEDEN

AGE	KIND OF EDUCATION		
4	Home education (day care centre, day nursery)		
4 - 7	Pre-School (day care centre) - in most cases integrated in community pre-schools		
7 - 17	I	II	III
	Individual Training (Separate instruction)	Training School	Comprehensive School
	at home or in institutions for profoundly retarded children and young people	for moderately retarded students	for mildly retarded students
		(in most cases integrated in community schools)	
17 - 21	Vocational School (Upper Secondary School)		
(- 23)	Activity Training	Vocational Training	Vocational Education
	to improve the ability and dexterity of the mentally retarded person	semi - or unskilled training for a specific task or for the handling of simple tools or machines	semi-skilled for a particular vocation
	Two-year Course	Four to Six-year Course	Four-year Course
	Goal	Goal	Goal
	Placement in day occupation centres or at home (under supervision of an occupational therapist)	Placement for some in open market, but for most in sheltered workshops or day occupational centres	Placement in open market and sheltered workshops

NOTE: All the teachers in the vocational special schools and most of those teaching integrated classes in upper secondary schools have taken a course of training at the College for Special Education in Stockholm.

CHANGING PATTERN OF PROVISION FOR THE ESNM LEAVER IN THE PORTSMOUTH AREA

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Wessex Studies in Special Education, 1981, Vol. 1, pp. 101-112

> "It is in society's own interest to invest more in opportunities for education, training, and other forms of support for these young people in order to minimise their disadvantages. Our own experience and impressions from visits to schools, colleges, training establishments and other institutions suggest that people with special needs are often unemployed or under-employed simply because they are not provided with the right help at the right time. We are convinced that resources spent on further education and training facilities and on support for these young people before and after they leave school will, in the long term, reduce their dependence on the social and health services and thus the cost to the community of supporting them. For example, a small amount of extra help for school leavers with moderate learning difficulties or emotional or behavioural disorders may enable them to hold down a job and reduce the chances of their entering a cycle of frequent changes of job, leading to long-term unemployment and dependence on social and psychiatric services. Responsibility for providing whatever extra help a re-assessment of needs dictates should be clearly assigned to one or more services before the young person leaves school."
>
> (DES, 1976)

Background

Before 1972, the year in which the school-leaving age was raised from fifteen to sixteen, only children in secondary special schools were compelled by law to remain at school until the age of sixteen. That local authorities prior to 1972 had a legal obligation to provide an additional year's secondary schooling underlined an acceptance of the view that these children required an extra period of time in which to mature and develop.

Secondary ESNM schools have recognised for some time the problems involved in the transition from school to work for their leavers, especially those who are socially and emotionally immature. A variety of schemes have been introduced over the past twenty years to make the transition as smooth as possible and a majority of these have involved some form of counselling and after-care. An example of this kind of approach could have been seen at Red Lodge Secondary

ESNM School in Southampton before the school-leaving age was raised.

At Red Lodge all school-leavers were placed in employment at the beginning of their last term at school. The careers service permitted the issue of insurance cards whilst the pupils remained on the school register. Placement was undertaken by a member of staff who liaised with local firms and factories, counselled and gave support to the young people, provided after-care and was present for consultation one evening a week at the school youth club. The member of staff concerned was allocated one half-day a week to fulfil this role.

Three categories of employment were identified by the school as suitable for the pupils:

(1) open employment;

(2) sheltered employment (eg. adult training centre); and

(3) semi-sheltered employment.

Categories 1 and 2 are self-explanatory. Category 3 met the needs of the socially and emotionally immature pupil. Various firms possessing sympathetic and supportive employers and employees were identified within the city which provided a form of semi-sheltered employment. For example, there was one laundry in Southampton, staffed mainly by middle-aged women, which was an ideal placement for the immature ESNM girl. A number of girls were placed initially at the laundry and after a period of from one to two years were later able to transfer to other places of work.

Since the raising of the school-leaving age most secondary special schools have adjusted their leavers' programmes and introduced work experience as a major component in the fifth year curriculum. This has retained the advantage of introducing pupils whilst still at school to the real pressures of the world outside. It has also allowed the schools to make close links with employers and afforded them an opportunity to make a realistic assessment of their pupil's strengths and weaknesses.

Innovation

In the mid-sixties a major innovation was introduced in Hampshire by Mr. Jerrold, the headteacher of Cliffdale Secondary ESNM School in Portsmouth: an innovation designed to meet the needs of the immature pupil. The problem was identified by the head in the following way:

> "Every year about ten to fifteen of our boys and girls who are not yet mature enough to face the problems and stresses of open employment reach school-leaving age. Experience shows that these immature children who have reached the limits of their academic potential usually lose their first job soon after obtaining it, then go through a quick succession of jobs and finally end up with only occasional employment. Poor time-keeping, lack of persistence, unsuitable response to work instructions and sometimes intellectual inability to understand instructions are the main causes, either singly or in combination, of the ESN school-leaver's failure to adjust to industrial conditions.
>
> "Because of legal difficulties it was not possible for the children to be sent for trial periods into shops and factories before leaving school and, even if it had been, the conditions, hours of work and type of task could not have been controlled to meet the needs of particular children and their reactions and progress could not have been observed. I envisaged, therefore, a 'factory' which would be a classroom fulfilling a specialised function."
>
> (Jerrold and Fox, 1968)

The following specifications for the 'factory' were laid down:

(1) working conditions must be real;

(2) work must conform to industrial standards and be of genuine industrial origin, associated with local industries in such a way that the pupils can see that they are taking part in normal work situations;

(3) equipment and machinery must be of a type normally used in industry;

(4) the 'unit' must be detached from school or college, but must remain under the education 'umbrella': an industrial estate is the ideal location;

(5) the course should be the equivalent of 'end on' or link courses available in other schools;

(6) each pupil should be able to attend as long as considered necessary;

(7) pupils would return to a school or college on a day-release basis for continued tuition in academic subjects: this should be carefully aligned with the employment and work situation;

and

(8) the person(s) in charge must have appropriate industrial experience and teaching experience with the ability range of pupils likely to be encountered.

Changing pattern

Both the approaches adopted by the Southampton and Portsmouth schools were successful in the late sixties and early seventies in bridging the gap between school and the outside world. However, the increased unemployment levels of the late seventies meant that both approaches had to be reviewed. The weakness of the Southampton approach was that it soon became apparent that the young people required support for a longer period than it was possible for a school to provide. Changes in employment patterns, such as the growth of service industries and the decline of manufacturing industries adversely affected the value of the second approach. The situation facing Cliffdale Industrial Training Unit was clearly outlined in an internal report prepared by the Unit's manager in 1979. The following extract from this report succinctly states the nature of the problem:

> "The aims of the Unit remain the same, that is, a period of industrial training to help the immature and educationally handicapped to be better equipped to enter employment. The methods used are basically the same although there has been a slight move away from machine working to assembly work. The day release for further academic work has been discontinued, but a much bigger emphasis has been placed on safety training in accordance with the Health and Safety at Work Act of 1974.

> "The period in question, however, has seen a decline from almost full employment to unemployment of unacceptable amounts and the present day difficulty of school-leavers of all ability levels to find employment. Many authorities think that the decline in employment (opportunities) for the school-leaver is a reflection of general unemployment levels and that a betterment of employment generally will also benefit school-leavers. However, it is the opinion of the writer that this is not so, as evolutionary changes have seen the loss of many traditional job opportunities for ever, and in addition factory acts which control a young person's conditions of work until the age of eighteen years have made many large employers reluctant to employ persons under that age."
>
> (Farmer, 1979)

Farmer (1979) identified a number of these changes:

(1) a higher degree of automation in even the smallest of machine shops has meant the loss of unskilled 'machine minder' jobs;

(2) the automatic hot drink machine has had a small but significant effect on employment opportunities;

(3) the almost total disappearance of the corner shop has meant a large loss in job opportunities, (eg, in Hampshire alone over 300 sub-post offices were closed in the period 1977-78);

(4) the introduction of self-service petrol stations has also caused job losses for young unskilled school-leavers;

(5) the rapid growth of grocery cash-and-carry stores has led to a significant decline in the number of wholesalers with their fleets of delivery vans requiring van-boys;

(6) imported garments from the Far East have shut forever many local factories which heretofore have employed school-leavers, (eg, the closure of the C and A factory at Paulsgrove had the effect of closing opportunities for from eight to ten girls from Cliffdale School each year); and

(7) the introduction of self-service in stores like Woolworths and Marks and Spencer has resulted in a substantial reduction in the number of girls employed by such stores.

Farmer (1979) noted that the high incidence of unemployment among school-leavers meant that the employer had more choice and so the chances of the less able had deteriorated. The less able who were easily employed twelve years ago had become marginally employable and those who were marginally employable twelve years ago had become unemployable.

The position of school-leaver unemployment became most acute from July 1976 and the placement analysis of young people from the Unit since that time is, in Farmer's view, illuminating. Including those on register at January 1979, there have been:

64 persons on book

	N
No. of persons leaving to permanent jobs	14
No. of persons leaving to ATCs	12
No. of persons leaving to help parents	2
No. of persons leaving to no employment	15
No. of persons returned to school	1
No. in Unit now	20
	64

Farmer also drew attention to the fact that of the twenty attending the Unit only two were assessed as suitable for possible employment, four were thought to be marginally employable and the remaining fourteen were likely to be placed in an ATC, if places were available for them.

FE provision

Against this background and at the instigation of the Hampshire Special Schools Heads' Conference a working party was set up to consider further education provision for the non-academic pupil in the county. After due deliberation the working party made the following recommendations:

(1) FE colleges should provide opportunities for further education for handicapped school-leavers;

(2) two pilot courses designed for ESNM school-leavers, for an initial period of two years, should be set up at Eastleigh College of Further Education and Portsmouth College of Art, Design and Further Education starting in September 1979;

(3) one course could be financed directly by the county and the other through the Manpower Services Commission;

(4) a county liaison committee should be set up to co-ordinate and monitor developments: individual liaison committees for each college would also be required in due course;

(5) at each college a course organiser on a Lecturer II grade, who could be from a FE or special school background, should be appointed at least a term before students arrived, to make contact with schools and to involve existing college staff with the course. There should also be a Lecturer I post for the course, either on secondment from one of the local authority's schools or as a temporary appointment for the pilot course;

(6) appropriate accommodation and resources, including ancillary staff, would be required at each college;

(7) a development and training programme, including The City and Guilds of London Institute Course 7314 (Teaching of the Handicapped in Further Education) and appropriate short courses would be required for staff involved or likely to be involved with the non-academic course; and

(8) a student hostel for fifteen to twenty students, staffed by a full-time warden and domestic staff, would enable the course at Eastleigh CFE to draw students from all over the county.

New role

In the light of the internal report (Farmer, 1979) discussions were held to review the role of Cliffdale ITU. These discussions took place at the same time that the county working party made its recommendations for a non-academic course at Portsmouth CADFE. As a result of consultations between the principal of the College and the head of Cliffdale School, the school governors accepted a recommendation that the ITU should provide five places for the use of pupils on the non-academic course. It was acknowledged that both the ITU and the College's non-academic course were meeting post-school needs and therefore it was sensible to marry together their activities.

A recent NFER report (Rowan, 1980) makes reference to the Cliffdale ITU and confirms the need for a change of role:

> "More recently the Unit has been overtaken by events since the sort of jobs it might prepare the least able pupils for - the broom-pushing and shelf-filling - have largely disappeared in the Portsmouth area with changes in the methods of industry. Some pupils have had to stay on as long as two years beyond school-leaving age in the Unit and still been unable to find jobs; many are having to be found places in Adult Training Centres because of the almost total lack in the area of the sheltered work which would suit them best. Meanwhile the use of the Unit is being revised to give all the children in the school a taste of work experience, and to provide some places for a course at the local college of further education."
>
> (Rowan, 1980)

The future could see the Industrial Training Unit fulfilling a multiplicity of roles:

(1) as an initial work experience base for all children at the main school;

(2) providing work experience placements for children who would be entering the non-academic courses

(these children could be drawn from other special schools in the Portsmouth area);

(3) undertaking assessment and diagnostic work for children re-entering the area from residential schools on referral by the Social Services Department or the specialist careers officers;

(4) providing specialist short-term assessment for other courses dealing with non-academic pupils, (eg, Price's and Southdowns Colleges); and

(5) as a holding unit for children who have been assessed and are awaiting placement in a sheltered workshop.

Cliffdale ITU and the Portsmouth non-academic course clearly complement each other.

At the end of the academic year 1979/1980 out of forty-four summer leavers from Cliffdale School, six (13.6%) had found positions of paid employment, fourteen (31.8%) had gone on to government courses under the Youth Opportunities Programme and six (13.6%) had gone to the ITU for assessment prior to placement either in an ATC or on a non-academic course or in open employment. Fourteen (31.8%) were unemployable and four (9.2%) had been placed, direct from school, on the non-academic course.

In the light of these figures it can be seen that we will need for some time to come a form of post-16 provision that 'buys time' and which allows the ESNM young person to develop socially and emotionally.

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REVIEW OF THE SCHOOLS' COUNCIL REPORT 'CURRICULAR NEEDS OF SLOW LEARNERS'

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The report is based on a Schools' Council Project which took place between 1971 and 1974. The project which was directed by W.K. Brennan was the first one in the Council's programme of work in the field of special education. Its aims were "to study good practice in a wide variety of schools (primary, secondary and special) and to describe the best of existing practice". The main intention of the report itself is to stimulate thought, discussion and action with regard to the curriculum for slow learners.

The parameters set for the study were vast. The project was to be concerned with the whole curriculum for the academically least successful fifteen to twenty per cent of the school population between the ages of five and sixteen. A total of 502 schools throughout England and Wales were visited and 152 of these were re-visited in the final year of the project. It was then a large task undertaken by a small team. The depth of study, of necessity, had to be limited. Judgements which frequently rested on the experience of individuals were comparative as opposed to absolute in nature. The project's work was restricted to schools "conducting successful curricula" with slow learners. It must therefore be realised that the resultsobtained and conclusions drawn are not based on standards overall but on the best of contemporary practice.

An essential point which is made early on threads its way throughout the report. It is that curriculum and teaching are not the same thing. Good teaching can occur where there is no curriculum in the same way that an outstanding curriculum on paper tells you nothing about what goes on in the classroom. The report points to a need for teachers to recognise that a well structured curriculum should be allied to good teaching techniques. The report also stresses the need for a broad, all-encompassing curriculum, whilst identifying the need for achievement in the basic subjects. It correctly points to the danger of a prescribed minimum curriculum becoming an accepted ceiling.

A curriculum, we are informed, has to meet the needs of the individual. It has therefore to provide a structure to cater for the development of concepts, the stimulation of curiosity and imagination and the social and emotional development of pupils. It has also to relate the foregoing to the development of vocational competence, homemaking and life skills. We are also informed that the best description of the curriculum should be that of a concentration on basic subjects balanced by broad fields of study in one form or another. We are told that this accounted for seventy per cent of primary school, ninety-five per cent of special school and over seventy per cent of secondary school curricula.

Most types of school claimed that continuous assessment was the best basis of curriculum evaluation and that individual pupil records kept track of assessment. A large proportion of the schools also claimed to be making use of standardised tests of intelligence and attainments as part of their records. The report sadly comments that "this claim was not substantiated by either the extent or quality of the records seen". The important point comes out here that good records may give an account of pupils' attainment but they fail to tell us much about the curriculum and teaching offered.

The major part of the second chapter is devoted to an examination of the use of resources, (eg, site and local facilities and teaching equipment). The chapter emphasises the need for a well structured and professional use of resources to aid the slow learner. It is noted that facilities are often available but are poorly used. Three points identified in this chapter need underlining. First, in relation to the use of teaching equipment (eg, audio-visual and reprographic equipment), it is important to bring out-of-school experience, language, concept formation, imagery and imagination into class work. Second, attention is drawn to the fact that primary and special schools have more restricted capitation resources than secondary schools which consequently limit their ability to provide equipment. The report suggests that this situation should be reappraised. Third, although the use of teaching equipment has a more substantial contribution to make to the teaching of the slow learner,

there was little evidence of its use in the project schools.

The most valid inference to be drawn from this part of the chapter is in relation to the important role to be played by the teacher. The report states that there is a place for experimentation with reprographic equipment and points to the essential need for professionals in the field continually to invent and provide new materials for our children.

Chapter five which provides a good insight into the shape of curricula in the schools studied examines the following aspects of the curriculum: (a) aims; (b) objectives; (c) content; (d) method; (e) recording; (f) evaluation; and (g) feedback. By using this framework many important points emerge. It became obvious to the project members that there was no consistent approach to the curriculum. There was also no agreed centralised procedure for recording curricula. Can I hear sighs of relief and peals of applause? It appeared that one in three primary, one in four secondary and one in six special schools did not provide any written curriculum. When this was followed up, it was found that it was because no curriculum existed! Remember, that these were identified as the best schools! However it must also be emphasised that even if a school had an excellent paper curriculum, it might give no indication of what was going on in the classroom.

One strong point in support of the currently popular move toward the adoption of a behavioural objectives approach to the curriculum is getting away from the idea of constantly changing learning situations in response to the shifting interests or needs of the pupils. However, it might be argued that the learning situations should shift in response to the ever changing interests or moods of the staff. This could be an interesting development during a period of post-Burnham pre-arbitration apprehension. Allied to this point is the vital one of minimising the problems of change for the slow learner. Continuity in the learning situation is crucial whether there is a change of school, teacher, class or in some cases, book or page!

A major section of this report evaluates the actual curriculum in the project schools. It identifies the essential subjects as language, reading, spelling and number. The framework for evaluation was the search for "consistency between aims, objectives, content and method". The overall number of schools assessed as providing successful curricula were four in ten primary, five in ten secondary and six in ten special, schools. The report comments that "it would not be unreasonable to project this level of success as representing a basic minimum likely to be found in the overall system of education". If one recalls that these schools were 'the best', this statement would appear somewhat hopeful!

The report then proceeds to work its way through the curriculum looking at English, humanities, religious and moral education, history, geography, art and craft, perceptual training, mathematics, science, school-leavers' courses, home economics, music, language and communication. These areas deserve study if only to refocus one's attention on one's own work. Certain comments made in the report provide definite indicators to future essential change:

> "The fact that only about half of the schools are successful in the basic English curriculum must be regarded as unsatisfactory."

> "Little of quality emerged for history and the same could be said for geography."

> "To some extent the work (perceptual training) is too isolated from the rest of the curriculum."

> "The mathematical education of general teachers is not of a high standard."

In discussion of the curricular needs of slow learning children, I was glad to see that the battle had been joined over the use of the terms 'dull' and 'remedial'. Hopefully such discussion will lead to the eventual removal of all such terms with the result that the curriculum will be based on the needs of the individual child. The

report suggests that there are three types of pupil need which require, respectively, an adaptive/developmental, a corrective/ compensatory, or a remedial, curriculum.

Summing up a report such as this must of necessity leave one with a number of unanswered questions and a few 'nailed on the wall' doctrines. First, I would support the rejection of the notion of a separate curriculum for slow learning children. My fear has always been that identification and isolation of slow learners with a separate curriculum leads to a self-fulfilling prophecy for children and teachers which generates low expectations, aspirations and achievement. Second, it is clear that the report is an indictment of present curriculum planning for slow learning children. It intended to highlight the problems in this area and this it did with a vengeance.

One problem that has to be faced is the fear felt by many teachers that implicit in an acceptance of a behavioural objectives approach to the curriculum is a loss of professional freedom. Worries of this kind can be overcome but they certainly exist and have to be combated. While the report shouts out for such an approach, it does not take the issue far enough. It gives no real indication of the problems of identifying and stating objectives. Whilst strongly supporting the adoption of such an approach I would endorse the view of Ainscow and Tweddle (1980) that: "<u>for some of the children some of the time</u> curriculum material should be expressed in terms of behavioural objectives".

The report identifies problems, issues challenges and certainly demands a response. It should be read by all workers in the field.

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A NEW CONCEPT IN BOARDING PROVISION FOR THE MALADJUSTED PUPIL

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We take up to ten children and have been running at this number for the last ten years. There has never been a shortage of candidates but during the first five and a half years numbers were kept down by limited sleeping accommodation (in the first year), by difficulty in obtaining and replacing assistants and by the absence of the warden on a course in 1969-1970. Counting our current ten children we have so far had forty-four, and the length of stay has averaged around three to three and a half years. Referrals are made via the child guidance clinic and selection is carried out by a panel consisting of the educational therapist, a consultant psychiatrist, the area educational psychologist and the warden. Selection criteria are, once need is established, suitability of the child and family situation for mid-week help and age, sex and personality of child in relation to those of the existing group. We try to maintain an eight to fourteen + age range and when possible a six to four ratio of boys to girls. Severity of disturbance and difficulty of behaviour have never operated as rejection criteria, although the fact that the provision is part-time obviously affects referrals.

The staff comprises the warden and matron (no own children), two part-time assistants at twenty-one hours a week each, covering from 12.30 p.m. to 8.30 p.m. on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, working together from 12.30 p.m. to 4.30 p.m. on Fridays, and a cleaning lady for thirty hours a week.

Children stay with us from Monday to Thursday nights inclusive during school terms, are picked up from their schools Monday afternoons and taken to and from school in the hostel minibus which is usually driven by the warden, but sometimes when need arises by the matron.

We are situated on the edge of Denmead, which is a large village with a population of about 5000 some four and a half miles outside the Portsmouth boundary. Unsuccessful attempts were made to purchase properties in Portsmouth so that when one became available in Denmead it was snapped up even though, according to the original conception, it was rather far out. In practice the siting has proved successful since the distance from the city provides a sort of "cordon sanitaire", both physical and emotional. We have the dual advantage of being on

a regular bus route from Portsmouth with a useful shopping centre in the village and the town of Waterlooville only two miles away, but also enjoying the amenities of the countryside.

The house is a large-ish semi-bungalow with nearly two acres of ground and the only alterations made involved enlarging the kitchen, providing a second bathroom and lavatory, building on four bedrooms and converting the existing double garage into a workshop/playroom. The accommodation as used currently consists of kitchen, two bathrooms, two lavatories, five children's bedrooms, warden and matron's bedroom, dining-room 13' x 18' which opens through an archway into the communal sitting-room 18' x 24'. Upstairs in the loft there is floor-boarded storage space, 18' x 10', a tiny room sometimes used as a bedroom for students or old boys and girls, and a small warden's study/quiet activities/interview room.

Anmore Lodge came into being through the vision and efforts of Mr. H.J. Wright, formerly the Portsmouth chief educational psychologist and until his retirement in April 1980 the chief educational psychologist for Hampshire. It was the first stage of a plan to drastically reduce the number of Portsmouth children sent away to boarding schools. (Two similar hostels were to follow but change in the economic climate prevented this). The aim was to provide for children who needed residential placement, something which would not remove them from their families and natural habitat for nine months of the year, which would make possible fruitful regular contact between the residential workers, the clinic workers and families, and, perhaps most important of all, which would because of the small size and family type setting facilitate the growth of close corrective relationships with dependable grown-ups. The setting up of the hostel came just at the right time for us and was, without our knowing it, just what we were looking for. We had been working in independent boarding schools for disturbed children and there was a close fit between what we felt were the deficiencies of the boarding school situation and the intended advantages of the hostel.

What has developed differs from the original conception in three respects. First, it was thought likely that most of the children would attend the day school for maladjusted children. In fact it soon became

apparent that hostel support could enable children who would otherwise in all probability have needed the school to continue in the mainstream, and it has continued to do this. This has been of obvious value for children, has helped slightly to ease pressure on the school and has made of the hostel a place less "special" and more in touch with ordinary life than it would have been.

Second, the intention of having residential treatment backed up by clinic resources as an on-going process, a combined campaign on all fronts, has never been realised. Actually, although a few workers over the years have for a time maintained contact with the hostel and the families, overall, once workers have succeeded in placing children pressure of new referrals seems to have prevented any consistent continuing work with children and families. Thus we have had to do the great bulk of the work with the homes and have enjoyed doing it. But it is a pity that the combined campaign did not come about since at least in theory it would have meant a more widely therapeutic maximisation of the hostel provision, perhaps enabling children's length of stay to be shorter so that places could be freed for others in need. It could, I suppose, be argued that our intimate first-hand knowledge of the homes has been of more benefit to our work in the place than clinic back-up could have been. Sour grapes?

The third difference is one merely of letter, and has in fact resulted in a closer approximation to the spirit of the original plan. It concerns the role of assistants. At the beginning the establishment was for a full-time resident assistant. We had three of these in four years, and although one of them made a considerable positive contribution, we were never happy with the arrangement. The two reasons were that having a third grown-up in a situation where there was no proper private staff accommodation, bedrooms apart, put strain on all three, and (closely related to the first) the role of assistant whatever the ability of the worker seemed to be incapable of being adequately fulfilled. Our resident assistants became in a sense the eldest of the children instead of reliable and authoritative staff members. Unrest or disruption after lights out

were not affected by the proximity of their bedroom to the children's, and even created worse problems because we had to deal with the assistant's problems as well.

Whatever the underlying causes, when the third one left I obtained permission to advertise for two half-time non-resident assistants instead. This change, besides freeing a bedroom and so making possible greater flexibility in combining and separating children in bedrooms, has proved successful, and we have had our present two assistants for nearly nine years. They function quite happily and effectively as auxiliaries, dealing in the main with necessary system maintenance so leaving us free to concentrate upon work with the children. This means that for the two critically important periods, getting up and preparing for the day and going to bed, the children have all of us for themselves, with no distractions. This furthers the deepening of relationships and makes the place more family-like.

After that bit of history a description of what Anmore Lodge offers under four headings: (1) an ordered reliable framework for children's lives-with-us; basic care, comfort and control; (2) opportunity for making use-full relationships; (3) things to do; and (4) contact with homes. One uses such distinctions to make description easier, but of course they are artificial, all four form interrelated parts of a process.

Framework

We all need structure in our lives, and for children whose life-experience has been one of unpredictability, confusion and even chaos it is even more important. So we try to provide a setting which is ordered and predictable (without being unnecessarily rigid) and therefore re-assuring. Getting-up time is fixed and there is no place for time-wasting or disruptive goings-on. As a group of twelve we all have to work hard to ensure that everybody and everything is ready in time for going to school, and we have to be able to rely on having enough time to get it done at an unhurried pace and with room for adjustments for individuals. Children must be properly set up for their day, not just scrambled into external readiness. There is no lee-way about times of meals, or again scope for up-setting non-conformity. Meal-times must be

insofar as is possible, enjoyable and satisfactory times for everyone. Bathing and bed-times are more flexible, negotiable according to need, but the two activities have to be conducted in such a way that all get a reasonably fair share of enjoyable space/time for themselves. Other's rights and freedoms are not to be impinged upon. If one child takes too much hot water or is noisy after lights out then others won't be able to have pleasant baths or get to sleep. Behaviour in the minibus and while waiting to be picked up, is firmly restricted. All this requires constant monitoring and re-inforcement, with sensitivity. Maintaining a proper balance of compromise between what is valuable for all and what particular members need, "achieving a way of living for a group of individuals" (Clare Winnicott, 1964) is no easy job.

The task I have just referred to can only be carried out with any measure of success if there is a fair rate of exchange between what we ask of children and what we give. Only if they can experience us as good providers can we reasonably, realistically expect what we do of them. And we do expect a lot. One of the things that visitors most commonly comment upon is the civilised way in which meals are conducted. Some have criticised this as an unnecessary imposition of middle-class standards, serving only to make life easier for us. Others, based upon the wilder shores of therapy, have gone further, seeing it as an unfeeling assault upon individuality and personal freedom. Neither interpretation is, I trust, valid. Insistence upon good table-manners is just one aspect of the complex task the hostel was set up to perform. To teach children good manners of any kind, provided it is done with understanding and tact, is to equip them with social skills which can contribute considerably towards helping them to avoid the vicious circles of interaction into which their maladaptive behaviour so often leads them and leaves them trapped. What tends to antagonise people about such children is that they often behave in ways that are found inappropriate to the situation. What we have to try to do is to extend and modify their repertoires. This is not about clapping children into strait-jackets of conformity but rather kitting them out with "clothes" for all occasions.

The value of providing sound physical care and comfort is obvious, but because of the psychological implications is for disturbed children more important than for most, and second in importance only to (2). Accordingly we pay great attention to adequate warmth (or coolness) of bedrooms, of bed-clothes and clothes, to the more general suitability and comfortableness of clothes, to slightest signs of physical disease or illness, and to the quantity and quality of food. And by adequacy, suitability, quantity and quality I don't just mean what one might consider fitting for any child, though this is the basis to work from, but include suiting things to individuals.

Providing structure must entail punishment, whatever one chooses to call it, as well as reward. We have no system of rewards. Rewarding in a general many-faceted sense, is in the air of the place. Punishment, (which is not in the air!) is systematised only with regard to two things. Any child who is noisy or mobile after the lights are out without good reason will automatically have a spell in the seclusion of a bathroom, any child skipping school in unmitigating circumstances goes to bed after tea (not to sleep). Of course, these two punishments are not intrinsically severe, but are established tokens of strong disapproval on our part. Otherwise, it is the expression of our disapproval or anger, and the anticipation of them, which control children. Not so much because our disapproval or anger are terrible but because they mean temporary withdrawal of what the children come to value most.

Relationships

We aim to give children opportunities for making, often for the first time in their lives, strong affective relationships with dependable grown-ups. Relationships which can in time become relatively open and honest, in which there is a fair degree of mutual awareness of both threat and promise. This is the crux of what we hope to achieve.

There are three enabling factors which help towards realisation of this aim. In the first place we start with one great advantage compared with Social Services residential units in that the children choose to come. They are initially selected at an admission panel

meeting, but afterwards are invited to visit so that they can find out for themselves if they want to come. This sometimes involves several visits and sometimes means staying for a night or two. There has in nearly twelve years been only one exception, a boy who was in effect directed to us, but we helped him to feel that he was choosing. Being able to choose to come gives children the sense of exercising control over what happens to them. This often results in a basic motivation to succeed, to make use of what is offered. Only two out of forty-four children, by the way, subsequently changed their minds.

Secondly, there is the physical lay-out of the house and what it comes to mean. It is an advantage that the house was not purpose-built. There's no "Staff Quarters", no segregation. The only room theoretically just for us is our bedroom, and since it opens on to the sitting-room and the door is shut only when we're in bed, in practice, it is hardly private. The upshot is that the hostel is like a large family house, and from the start it has helped children to develop a sense of belonging, to identify with the place, and has helped us to create a beneficial family sort of atmosphere. That we have (by choice) no children of our own is another factor that has contributed. While the children are with us, all our time is for them.

The third, the most powerful enabling factor is one for which we ourselves are responsible. This is the existence of an atmosphere of acceptance of the whole child, warts and all. Although Anmore Lodge is well-structured and we make considerable demands for conformity in certain areas, much of hostel life is controllable by children. They are treated as individual persons, not filling for moulds. Between tea at about 4.30 p.m. and bathing and going to bed (the timing of which are to some extent adjustable) children are almost always free to choose what they would like to do, and where, provided there is no damage or impingement upon others. (Coming to the job fresh from boarding school we tended at first to over-organise, having set activities, but soon saw the error of our ways). There is always so much to choose from that in the short-term possibilities are inexhaustible. (An advantage of part-time

as compared with full-time provision). The possibilities include doing nothing, or what a naive observer might construe as such. For example, just lying on the rug in front of the fire or lounging with comics on a bed. The "opium of the masses" is also a possibility, but is rarely switched on. It can't compete.

Allowing children areas of freedom, time and space for themselves, like the scope for individuality, which was referred to in the earlier section, is a valuable part of what I mean by acceptance, but is relatively easy for competent grown-ups to provide. The hard work comes in with the more positive, the crucial aspect of acceptance. I don't just mean tolerating difficult behaviour at times when this is necessary, though this is a part of it. Real acceptance involves active consistent effort to get to know each child as a unique entity, and ranges from becoming aware of and accommodating apparently trivial likes and dislikes to learning about and treating with due respect and delicacy deeply personal hopes and fears. There is on the surface nothing special about what's needed. Just looking, listening and talking, which everyone does in varying degrees in most situations. But they must be done with extraordinary concentration and carefulness so that for an instant, for three minutes or more rarely for a quarter or half of an hour the child is enabled to be, and to really feel the recipient of all one's attention. This experience encourages children to feel that they are worth one's while and repeated again and again helps them to feel that inside, in their own right, they are worthwhile.

Things to do

I said what for the children the possibilities are inexhaustible. That's only a bit of an exaggeration. The garden is large and all of it is for playing on. There are fair-sized climbable trees, a tarzan rope, bits and pieces of school reject climbing apparatus and a number of large packing-cases. There's always stuff available for building dens. The house is built upon a terrace with five sets of steps leading down, and this feature lends itself to play. In the very thick of winter they rarely play outside, rarely want to. But when it's light enough they spend much of the time, their time, outside. Which doesn't necessarily

mean in the garden. There is a large field next door which the farmer doesn't mind us using, providing animals aren't abused, and the neighbouring lanes come in handy for rambles and bike rides. We have "expeditions" to the downs and to the woods, and swim most weeks in the school year.

When we opened we were lucky to be allotted money for adapting and equipping the original large double garage as a playroom/workshop/pottery. It contains a large sandpit, large sink, a woodwork bench with a good assortment of simple tools, wood and other materials. There's plenty of paint and paper and the pottery provision is better, taking into account the smallness of the group, than I have found anywhere. This room is open to children any evening, and with the proviso mentioned before they come in to do just what they want. There's no pressure to be "busy" or productive. What's there is to be enjoyed in their own ways. So they can play simply with sand and water or just watch others at work and chat with them, or at the other extreme make masks, figures, pots and chess-sets that many adults would be pleased to have made. This room is my especial province and like it I'm on tap whenever required. Choice is limited only when there are jobs that have to be done at a particular time, such as re-constituting clay, mixing glazes or preparing pieces for a glaze-firing. And these are fun, not irksome tasks.

Inside the house there is a comprehensive range of table-games and jig-saws, and my wife's infectious enthusiasm for these is only one of her many excellences. Besides constructional toys, materials for drawing and colouring, and books, there's a table-tennis table, a record-player and a wide selection of records. The dining room and sitting room which are separated only by an archway provide a reasonable space for ten children to be occupied in. The passage and bedrooms are also used for a variety of games. We have a large collection of clothes for dressing-up, which are often used to enhance informal play, and from time to time "plays" thought up and organised by the children hilariously monopolise the evening. We both like to sing with children and do this casually or with organisation when we are preparing for a party or entertaining friends.

Upstairs there is a small cosy room which is quiet and enclosed in contrast to the openness, the noise and bustle of downstairs. Here children come to play with the doll's house and model farm, to read, to draw, do homework, listen to my stories and tell me theirs, to retreat at times of distress or pre-occupation, to do anything it's nice to do in such a place.

Contact with homes

Maintaining good continuing relationships with the parents makes things easier for us in our work within the hostel, and that work more effective, in two ways. On a superficial though practically useful level it helps us to keep track of clothes that we lend to children, to trace things stolen or illicitly swapped or sold and to keep in touch with family events such as changes of "uncles", jobs and houses. This gives us a necessary working minimum of information and co-operation. More importantly it helps us to be more aware of the emotional home climate and what it can mean for the child. One can't profitably help children in an institutional vacuum.

Since we can become in varying degrees familiar and real people to the parents it is harder for them to make of us saints or monsters, to load us down with unproductive change-inhibiting projections. For example, fantasising us as impossible concentrations of sweetness, tolerance and strength can be one way of dealing with their "failure" with their children. 'They can cope of course but they're superhuman so we don't need to worry.' Or some might, if left to do it, absolve themselves of blame by putting all their own bad bits onto us. So that we might be seen as rigid, unsympathetic, selfish, inconsistent or what have you. We try to help them towards a clearer perception of how things are, which includes acknowledging their good qualities and achievements as well as facing up to their "faults" and "failures".

Our knowing the homes fairly well can be, from the children's point of view, not entirely a good thing. It makes it harder for them to pull wool over our eyes, to gain sympathy from us or from other children by mis-representing what goes on, to avoid valid criticism of their at-home behaviour. But it does contribute to their feeling of acceptance, the

warts and all bit, in relation to their families. They know that we know and it's reassuring. Also, as with the parents, it makes easier the difficult but necessary movements towards a shared perception of actuality, and the separation of the child's psychic reality from it. (Without denying or rejecting what the child feels inside).

The task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet related in respect of our work within the hostel and with parents, is one which ideally needs skilled consultant help. (Which in our case we have not got). This task has been in my mind while writing, and I have the uneasy feeling that it may all sound too good to be true. So I would like to stress that this account deals with the place as we hope it works at peak efficiency, and in terms of our highest aims. We are not infrequently tired, lazy and a bit insensitive, our behaviour particularly during periods of stress can be governed by what is expedient rather than what is necessary, and at times we are utterly in the dark about what to do.

When several years ago I wrote about being in the dark, it was as an admission that we sometimes fall into pockets of inadequacy. These pockets still occur, of course, but are experienced differently. Not knowing what to do at times seems now less threatening, easier to accept and therefore less likely to result in panic action, the only virtue of which is that for a short while, it relieves. Those who try to move in the dark can only grope. Better to wait until a little light comes and in the meantime, not just do something but stand there.

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SECTION 10(76) AND ALL THAT...: PARLIAMENTARY DEMOCRACY IN ACTION?*

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The inclusion of Section Ten in the 1976 Education Bill can scarcely be regarded as a triumphant demonstration of the British parliamentary system at work. As this paper will seek to show the debates in both Houses of Parliament on the desirability and practicality of integrating handicapped pupils into ordinary schools tended to be superficial and ill-informed. Persistent confusion as to the different meanings of the two central concepts - handicap and integration - is clearly evident throughout the debates. On July 1st 1976, Clause 17 of the Education Bill was debated for the first time in the House of Commons. The aim of the clause was to change the emphasis of education for the handicapped from provision in special schools to provision in ordinary schools. Mr. Jack Ashley spoke to the motion and in doing so mentioned specifically the blind, the deaf and the crippled. His reason for advocating the change in emphasis was stated as an attempt to reduce the loneliness of handicapped children and to enable both handicapped and non-handicapped to understand each other better. Supporting him was Mr. John Hannam. Significantly, Mr. Hannam stated that the clause had been inserted as a result of:

> "close consultations with the redoubtable and well known Peter Large, Chairman of the Association of Disabled Professionals, and Martin Milligan, Chairman of the Joint Education Committee of the National Federation of the Blind and Partially Sighted Teachers and Students."

It is obvious from the content of the debate that it was initiated for the benefit of physically handicapped but intellectually able children. Mr. Hannam placed the proposed legislation in the context of the movement towards greater equality of opportunity in education, by stating:

> "If the Government mean what they say when they express their support for comprehensive education they must apply the same rule to handicapped children, thereby giving a boost to the movement towards integration in education that we all want, otherwise it would be hypocrisy."

When Mr. Ronald Bell asked whether the clause was intended to apply to all handicapped children including the mentally handicapped, Mr. Hannam replied:

> "I was making the point that the most severely handicapped, those who are unable to mix in ordinary schools, will still have to be provided for in special schools."

The definition of "the most severely handicapped" is left open to interpretation. Did this mean that ESNM, the largest group of handicapped pupils, were to be integrated into ordinary schools?

There were several speeches made in favour of integration, and in all of them reference was made to the physically handicapped. Clement Freud, the Liberal Party education spokesman alluded to the principle of equality of opportunity and the social gains to be made from the mixing of handicapped and non-handicapped. However, like others before him, he spoke specifically of the physically handicapped:

> "There are many children whose natural violence is curbed by the compassion conjured up by having handicapped children near them."

He also spoke as if children with special needs would be transformed by the introduction of integration. Other speakers included George Sinclair (the president of PHAB) and Norman St. John-Stevas. None mentioned the mentally handicapped.

For a number of reasons, Clause 17 did not reach its third reading in the House of Commons. The main reason was some measure of doubt about the implications of actually implementing a policy of integration. Mike Noble, while expressing sympathy with the principle of integration, said he felt that it might actually increase the loneliness of "the child who stood on the touchline". Mr. Carter-Jones felt that Clause 17 went too far. Ivan Lawrence noted that the criterion for special education should not be "what is practicable" but what is appropriate for the children concerned. He felt that the resources did not exist for its implementation. Martin Flannery also doubted the nation's capacity to

implement the proposals, although he too sympathised with the sentiments behind the proposal.

The debate was therefore a reasonably balanced one. There were no party divisions. The difference of opinion appeared to be between those advocating the integration of the physically handicapped into ordinary schools and those MPs who sought to assess the practicality of the proposal. The deciding factor was the assurance from Miss Margaret Jackson, then Under-Secretary of State for Education and Science that Clause 17 was not really essential. She expressed her doubts about its viability and the necessity of a legal requirement to integrate as she believed that integration could be successfully achieved without further legislation. She agreed to meet Mr. Ashley for "private talks" about the matter and on her advice Mr. Ashley withdrew the motion.

One might have thought that under these circumstances that would have been the end of the story. But no, on July 29th 1976 the amended Education Bill, as passed in the Commons, reached the House of Lords. In introducing it, Lord Donaldson, Minister of State for Education and Science, spoke at length about the first three clauses of the Bill, all of which were concerned with the implementation of comprehensive education. It seemed that Lord Donaldson had already decided that these were the parts that had to be taken seriously:

> "This Bill consists of two parts; the first controversial but vitally important, the second less vital and certainly less likely to give rise to prolonged debate."

The debates on the first clause occupied many sessions. During the discussion of Clause One it was agreed that the disabled should be "encouraged" into ordinary schools wherever possible. The evidence of the Association of Disabled Professionals was quoted in support of the argument for the integration of the physically handicapped. The debate on the first sections continued for several months. It was not until October 7th that Baroness Phillips

introduced what was to be a new Clause Ten.

It was whilst the House had been discussing the matter of school milk that Baroness Phillips introduced this new clause. The clause was a slightly modified but still recognisable version of the proposal Jack Ashley had withdrawn some three months earlier in the Commons. She did in fact acknowledge that it was very similar. In proposing the new clause, Baroness Phillips used the word "disabled" to describe the "handicapped children" for whom the amendment was intended. The reasons she gave in favour of integration were:

(a) academic advantages;

(b) opportunities for social mixing;

(c) keeping of the handicapped children within the family home;

(d) mixing with unhandicapped contemporaries; and

(e) preparation for the adult world.

Lord Donaldson observed that the new clause would not be a step-by-step modification of existing provision, but an overnight reversal of policy "of the kind for which we have neither the resources, nor I fear, the goodwill on the part of many authorities to implement." The same reasoning had been used in the Commons debate, and had been advanced by the Under Secretary of State for Education and Science.

Lord Vaizey spoke in favour of the new clause and made specific reference to Mrs. Warnock who he stated was "a very old friend and colleague of mine from my days at Oxford", a remark possibly calculated to give the impression that he was in some way speaking on her behalf. He also spoke of the length of time which committees such as the Warnock Committee generally took in reporting, and observed that this would be the last opportunity for some time for Parliament to amend the law in this respect, an observation which pays scant regard to the constitutional niceties ignoring as it does the fact that the Warnock Committee had been commissioned by the previous government to make recommendations to it on the basis of <u>evidence</u> received. The proposal was also supported by

Baroness Elliot of Harwood and Baroness D'Arcy de Knayth. Both spoke of the physically handicapped and the disabled. Baroness Faithful used the example of the successful integration of thalidomide children and Lord James of Rushholme "supported the proposal 100%" (without saying why). Another example of successful integration was cited by Baroness Macleod of Bowe. She referred to her niece, who although stone deaf, gained nine 'O' levels at an ordinary school. Handicapped people at universities were referred to by Baroness Bacon. Lord Davies of Leek spoke about the number of children "injured and killed, damaged and maimed for life on the roads of Britain". He said that "to think that we could not ... ... provide them with the maximum of opportunity for integration with normal children is to me a sad thing."

One voice of caution was raised by Baroness Stedman, who proposed waiting for the Warnock Report to be published, but Baroness Phillips concluded the debate by saying, "All through my Parliamentary and political life I have been 'Waiting for Godot'". She further added that as the clause was "not revolutionary", it should be passed. The motion was agreed!

It is perhaps surprising that a rationally conducted debate in the Commons should be superceded by what appeared to be an emotional, ill-informed and in places superficial discussion in the House of Lords by a selection of well meaning peers. No reference was made to any research data or indeed evidence of any kind, other than reference to individuals, most of whom were highly privileged. Section Ten would appear to have been introduced at the instigation of a small, powerful and readily identifiable lobby representing the particular interests of a minority within the handicapped population. The tactics employed by this lobby bear the distinctive hallmarks of a carefully orchestrated campaign which brilliantly succeeded in out-manoeuvring the government, the Department of Education and Science and the majority of professional organisations.

Soon after Section Ten had been accepted there was a tidal wave of critical reaction. On October 7th a statement by the NAS/UWT was

reported in The Times citing difficulties in implementing the proposals. On the same day the Director of The Spastics Society sounded a similar warning. The Times Educational Supplement of November 11th contained a statement by Mary Warnock, criticising the new clause. A Times leader on November 11th also grimly observed that the new legislation would lead to controversy. On November 19th The Times carried another letter from Mrs. Warnock repeating her concern that the clause should have been passed so precipitately. The NUT General Secretary at the annual conference, criticised the government for not waiting for Warnock.

It is interesting and instructive to contrast the ways in which Section Ten was reported. The journal Special Education in December 1976 contained a short report stating what had happened in an objective and uncritical manner. Another account of the debate is provided in the report of the Seventh Annual Meeting of the Association of Disabled Professionals - the organisation which had featured so prominently in the evidence cited during both debates in Parliament. At its meeting the passing of the clause was referred to as "the logical denouement of rational debates in both Houses of Parliament". (my underlining). They noted with satisfaction that there was no real controversy in either debate. The fact that the Commons amendment was withdrawn as a result of the "uncontroversial" debate is passed over. The report states that "Amendments in the Commons sought faster progress in implementing existing policy ... ... amendments in the Lords pursued this issue". The MPs who had objected to the clause were referred to as "a few sceptics". A short paragraph was sufficient to outline their reasoning. The Lords' debate was described in rather more glowing terms:

> "Things were swingingly different in the House of Lords when Baroness Phillips introduced a similar non-segregationist clause at 6.25 p.m. on October 7th - those who would abolish the House of Lords should take note."

The fact that the spokesman for the government disagreed with the passing of the amendment was referred to disapprovingly:

> "With no support anywhere, Baroness Stedman half-heartedly referred to 'practical difficulties' and urged waiting for Warnock. Baroness Phillips would have none of it. The Question was put and only Lord Donaldson, for the Government, was 'Not Content'. The Amendment was thus agreed at 7.06 p.m."

It is less than re-assuring to see the way in which a few privileged people are able to introduce legislative change on the basis of a debate lasting no more than forty-one minutes and to go against the expressed wishes of the Government.

A third report on the passing of Section Ten is found in the NUT booklet Special Education in Ordinary Schools (1977). No detailed account of the proceedings is provided but it is obvious that the Union had noted the way in which legislation had been passed. In its foreword, the Union commented that the Section was "unexpected in that it legislated for the provision of special education in ordinary schools in advance of the findings of the Warnock Committee". Firmer doubts are expressed on the effects of introducing the new legislation: "Section Ten could mark not a progress, but a decline in the provision of special education, and a subsequent deterioration of educational opportunities for handicapped children". Reference was made to the Warnock Report, and to the fact that the NUT had submitted evidence to it warning of the disadvantages of integration. The passing of Section Ten was therefore seen as a shock:

> "The Union is consequently very disturbed that the Section Ten legislation pre-empts the findings of this Committee. The Union is also concerned that this legislation was passed so swiftly in the Lords, with no prior consultation with teachers, educational psychologists, doctors or local education authorities."

The Union evidently recognised the serious implications of what Baroness Phillips called "not revolutionary" legislation.

In May 1978 the Warnock Report was finally published. Chapter Seven of the Report is concerned with the education of children with special needs in ordinary schools. In Section IV of that chapter, Integration and the Law, Section Ten is referred to as a foregone conclusion and noted as being on the Statute book . The eventual implementation of integration was therefore seen as inevitable. However, a great number of conditions were laid down for the successful implementation of the clause. Members of the Committee were obviously not happy with it as it stood. Three qualifying conditions were considered and the general conclusion was that whilst Section Ten was inevitable, it should not be implemented until a comprehensive framework of arrangements was made. The support of the Committee for integration might well have been more cautious if Section Ten had not been passed during its deliberations.

To have argued so strongly and passionately for the inclusion of Section Ten Baroness Phillips and her fellow peers must presumably have believed that their views represented those of the majority. In order to test whether their collective judgement was sound many of the professional and other organisations which had submitted evidence to the Warnock Committee were approached to determine their attitudes toward the principle and practicality of integration. Replies were received from just over two-thirds of the organisations contacted, (i.e. 20). I found few of the organisations stated categorically that either integration or segregation was the better educational alternative. Each response was concerned with the balance between the advantages and the disadvantages of each type of provision. In an assessment of the general conclusions of each organisation I found that twelve advocated a separate system of special education and eight advocated some measure of integration. Most sympathised with the principle of mixing the handicapped with the non-handicapped, but many favoured it for groups of children other than those they represented! All were concerned that certain arrangements had to be made before integration could be carried out. Those who favoured integration were all concerned with

the physically handicapped. From the information I received, and from the recommendations of the Warnock Report, I have isolated twenty pre-conditions that the organisations stated should be enforced before integration could be considered practical. (Key to initials is provided in the Appendix).

CONDITIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL INTEGRATION	ORGANISATION
1. LEAs should have a comprehensive long term plan for special educational provision and the Secretary of State for Education and Science should issue guidance to them	Warnock, ACT, NCSE, ASBAH
2. Teaching staff should discuss among themselves and agree a plan for maximum educational and social interaction	Warnock, NCSE, ASBAH
3. Staff must have additional experience and training for special education	NCSE, Warnock, DES, NUT, NARE, ASBAH, JCEHC
4. A specialist must be given responsibility for arrangements for children with special needs	Warnock, DES, NAS/UWT, NCSE
5. Large schools should have supporting bases and resource centres to promote special education	Warnock, SS, NUT, SCD, NCSE, JCEHC
6. LEAs should arrange for additional staff and other resources specifically for special education	ACT, SS, DES, NUT, SHA, NARE, NCSE, NAS/UWT
7. Special classes and units should be placed in and function as part of the ordinary school	SHA, NUT
8. Modifications to school building	Warnock, ACT, SS, DES, TUC, SHA, NUT, JCEHC
9. Better system of records	SS, DES, NAS/UWT, Plowden

CONDITIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL INTEGRATION	ORGANISATION
10. Visiting educationalists at least twice a year to check the school and the children's progress	SS
11. Extra equipment: typewriters, tape recorders, language masters etc.	SS, DES, SHA, JCEHC, TUC
12. More teachers require training in special education	SS, NAS/UWT, TUC, DES, Plowden, ASBAH
13. Extra help - educational psychologists, peripatetic teachers, doctors etc.	SS, DES, TUC, SCD, JCEHC, NAS/UWT
14. Parents should be consulted	TUC
15. More money	DES, TUC, NUT, NUS, ADP, ACT, NAS/UWT
16. Need for school counselling service	NAS/UWT
17. Revision of the curriculum	Warnock, NUT, SS, NAS/UWT, TUC, DES, NARE
18. Appointment of a school governor with knowledge of special educational needs	DES
19. Attitudes of all the teachers and all the parents must be favourable	NARE, ASBAH, DES, ADP, TUC
20. Lower pupil-teacher ratios	SCD, JCEHC, ADP, DES

It is clear from the recommendations made by some of the organisations that there was some confusion about the meaning of integration. Some were talking in terms of full integration, others

of partial integration. It is obvious, though, that it would be impossible to fulfil all these pre-conditions and some of the organisations recognised this in their papers. The recommendations of the Warnock Report itself would seem a little idealistic and divorced from reality when related to current resources and attitudes. Among the serious reservations advanced by the organisations was the belief that an integrationist policy might be seen by LEAs as a policy of "no action" and that the acceptance of larger numbers of handicapped children into ordinary schools might result in a cutback in provision in special schools, with no corresponding provision elsewhere; (NUS/ADP). Fears were also expressed by teachers, who were afraid that they would be unable to absorb children with special needs into schools which were already using their resources to the full. They doubted their ability to care for and to educate children with special needs; (SCD, ADP, ASBAH, NAS/UWT, JCEHC).

The Joint Council for the Education of Handicapped Children (JCEHC) was one of the main critics of the proposal to integrate. They saw integration as a false alternative to segregation, saying that the sociological reasons for the movement have led to an oversimplification of the issues involved. The Council pointed out that special schools have the same goals as ordinary schools, in that they help pupils to play their part in society and they recognise and respect the interests of every individual. In addition, special schools have many advantages:

(a) smaller rolls;

(b) better pupil/teacher ratio;

(c) better able to meet the needs of children who need intimate grouping and to meet individual needs;

(d) better attention to individual development; and

(e) better able to accept and help disturbed and disruptive children when ordinary schools have difficulty accommodating them.

Goodwill is not enough, says the JCEHC. The JCEHC appears to voice the central criticism raised by many of the organisations when it states "integration based on a pious hope could be a disaster."

American experience

Criticism of the principle of integration may best be seen in the reactions of American educationalists to their recent legislation, Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Children Act, which was passed in 1975. It requires that a free, appropriate public education be provided for all handicapped children and had to be effective by October 1978. This law is more explicit and more positive than Section Ten and has five aspects:

(1) Zero reject No child can be excluded from receiving the appropriate public education he is entitled to. Beginning in September 1978 all children between the ages of three and eighteen shall receive a free, appropriate public education and from September 1980 this will be extended to all children from three to twenty-one.

(2) Non-discriminatory evaluation Testing and evaluation must be without cultural discrinination.

(3) An appropriately designed education program Each child must be provided with an individualised education program (IEP) which is to be addressed to his needs alone.

(4) Education in the least restrictive environment This section specifies that no child can be inappropriately segregated from his peers: "handicapped children ... ... who are educated with children who are not handicapped and special classes, separate schooling or other removal of handicapped children from regular educational environment occurs only when the nature or the severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes ... cannot be achieved satisfactorily."

(5) Procedural due process This gives the handicapped children and their parents their constitutional rights during identification, evaluation and educational placement by providing vehicles for notification, access to files and all records, independent evaluation and the right to complain to the level of legal action. This clause shows the traditional emphasis on the rights of the individual.

American special education journals have carried an increasing number of articles in the last few years which are critical of the effect of mainstreaming. In an article by Mesibov (1976) the inherent weaknesses in the mainstreaming principle are highlighted. He draws attention to the fact that the views of Wolfensberger - a leading advocate of normalisation - not only have little empirical underpinning, but that the factors that can be verified empirically have not been supported by data. Mesibov debates the validity of the argument that what is practised in mainstream schools is necessarily better than special school provision and he shows that the normalisation principle contradicts the fact that retarded people do in fact need very special help. Although the normalisation principle has played a vital role in the development of community services for the retarded, it has, he says, serious shortcomings. His main objections can be summarised:

(a) it is not easily measured or validated;

(b) it is not orientated towards individuals;

(c) it does not represent an enduring value system; and

(d) it does not deal with the essential differences between the retarded and the non retarded.

A different argument against the normalisation principle is advanced by Rhoades and Browning, (1977). They believe that normalisation and mainstreaming are ways of eliminating "deviants" from the public's awareness by assimilating them into the community. They advance the theory that the dispersal of individuals means a denial of the retarded person's opportunity to build an important type of peer relationship. They point out that other "deviants" seek each other out, forming associations like Alcoholics Anonymous, Independent Living Incorporated, Parents Anonymous (child abuse), Synanon (drug addiction) and so on. This type of peer relationship is characterised by empathy and mutual understanding. The writers believe that the handicapped, and especially the mentally handicapped, have a vital need for intimate friendships - impossible in a situation where they are the only one of a kind.

Throne (1975) advances a further criticism of the normalisation principle. He points to the fact that the mentally handicapped cannot be made more normal by being treated as if there is nothing wrong with them. He uses the developmental model to illustrate how the retarded need conditions that are extraordinary in order to speed up their developmental rate - they are slow in relation to normal people, so the application of normative procedures will perpetuate the maintenance of the same retarded developmental rates. This will stabilise them in their retarded state, says Throne, instead of making them move towards "normality".

Finally, Schwartz (1977) traces the growth of the issue of equality in America and suggests that this movement has made Americans blind to the fact that men are not created equal in all respects. The pressure on the retarded to become "normal" has resulted in "an undue burden on the retardate's psychic structure by exposing him to the constant repeated frustrations of enormous magnitude in the everyday world."

Conclusion

It would appear that handicapped people, and especially the mentally handicapped, have a need and a right to be given special treatment and provision as well as access to people of a similar ability with whom it is possible to form real relationships on an equal basis. In Britain, for a number of reasons, we are proposing to deny these rights if integration is implemented without proper concern for the provision of essential resources and social links between peers.

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APPENDIX

EVIDENCE FROM ORGANISATIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS

ACT:	Association of Career Teachers
ADP:	Association of Disabled Professionals
ASBAH:	Association for Spina Bifida and Hydrocephalus
CCD:	Central Council for the Disabled
ILEA:	Inner London Education Authority
ICAA:	Invalid Children's Aid Association
JCEHC:	Joint Council for the Education of Handicapped Children
NCB:	National Children's Bureau
NAS/UWT:	National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers
NCSE:	National Council for Special Education
NSAC:	National Society for Autistic Children
NFER:	National Foundation for Educational Research
NSMHC:	National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children
NUS:	National Union of Students
SCD:	Scottish Council on Disability
SSMHC:	Scottish Society for Mentally Handicapped Children
RCP:	Royal College of Psychiatrists
SS:	The Spastics Society
SHA:	Secondary Heads Association
TUC:	Trades Union Congress